

ITALY

WHAT SHE WAS
WHAT SHE IS
WHAT SHE WILL BECOME

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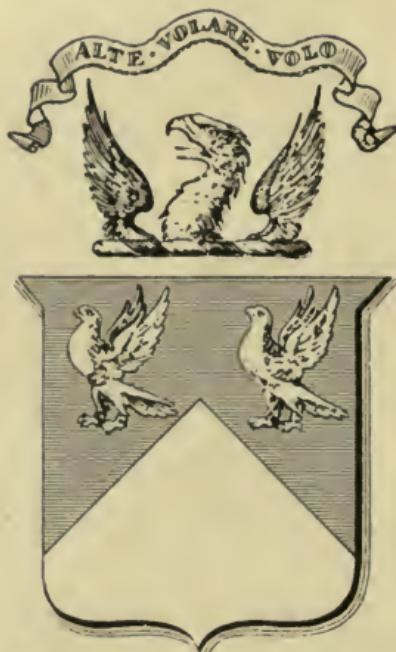


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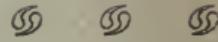
H. Morse Stephens

University of California

ITALY

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WHAT SHE WAS



WHAT SHE IS



WHAT SHE WILL BECOME

A KEEPSAKE

OFFERED TO THEIR U. S. A. COMRADES IN ARMS
ON LAND AND SEA
BY THE ITALIAN SAILORS

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THE ITALIAN SEAMEN
OFFER TO THEIR COMRADES OF THE U. S. A.
ON LAND AND SEA,
THIS FRIENDLY REMEMBRANCE OF ITALY.

We, Italian sailors, offer to you, our brothers-in-arms on land and sea in the great fight for liberty and right against tyranny and violence, this friendly volume.

May it remind you, when you have returned to your homes, of this our beloved country, who, like the U. S. A., entered voluntarily into this war, taking up a heavy burden in order that the civilized world should not be crushed under the tyranny of a people masquerading as civilized.

We have gathered together in this little book some historical and geographical items, with a short account of our war on land and sea and a brief forecast of our country's future. In the Appendix has been added some information regarding our Army and Navy, together with some notes on

agriculture, industry, and education and a short epitome of the Libyan War.

May the perusal of these pages inspire you with love towards our mother-land, whom we have so strenuously defended, and knit still closer those idealistic and material bonds between Italy and the United States, which your great President recently extolled in the presence of our beloved Sovereign.

Accept the heartfelt appreciation of all the Italian people for your President and your mighty nation.

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CONTENTS

A BIRD'S-EYE VIEW OF ITALY:

Extreme limits of Italy	pag.	3-4
Geographical and political boundaries		4-9
The coasts of Italy		9-20
Italian islands in the Mediterranean		21-22
Mountains and Lakes		22-26
Rivers		26-29
The Chief Railways-Lines		29-33
Navigation Lines		33-35

A SHORT DESCRIPTION OF ITALY		36-90
--	--	-------

THE NEW LANDS OF ITALY		90-113
----------------------------------	--	--------

COLONIAL ITALY		114-116
--------------------------	--	---------

A BRIEF HISTORY OF ITALY		117-158
------------------------------------	--	---------

AUSTRIA AND ITALY		158-193
-----------------------------	--	---------

THE NATIONAL WAR:

Why Italy came into the War		197-203
What Italy demanded		203-209
Maritime confines		209-212
The War on land		212-232
The naval War		232-240
Italy's industrial efforts		240-253

WHAT ITALY WILL BECOME		254-266
----------------------------------	--	---------

APPENDIX.

THE GOVERNMENT OF ITALY	pag.	269-273
-----------------------------------	------	---------

RELIGION		274-276
--------------------	--	---------

THE ARMY AND NAVY		277-283
-----------------------------	--	---------

ITALIAN SCHOOLS	pag.	284-288
EMIGRATION		289-290
INDUSTRIAL ITALY		291-297
AGRICULTURAL ITALY		298-302
THE LIBYAN WAR		303-311

MAPS.

PHYSICAL ITALY	pag.	1
ITALY BEFORE THE WARS FOR UNITY AND INDEPENDENCE (1859-1860-1866-1870)		157
THE OLD AND THE NEW BOUNDARIES OF ITALY		207
CENTRAL AND ORIENTAL ITALIAN FRONT FROM NOVEMBER 1917 TO OCTOBER 1918		226
POLITICAL ITALY		313

A BIRD'S-EYE VIEW OF ITALY

Extreme limits of Italy.

Italy, this land rich in glory and traditions, this most ancient mother-country of many civilisations, is different in its geographical aspect from all the other countries of Europe. It is attached to the European continent on the north, from which it is separated by the chain of the Alps, which encircle it like a wide arch. In the central and southern part it is a peninsula, that stretches out towards the middle of the Mediterranean, and its shores are washed by the Tyrrhenian, the Ionian and the Adriatic seas. With its large islands, Corsica, Sardinia and Sicily, the largest in all the Mediterranean, and with numerous groups of smaller islands, it extends into the Mediterranean nearly as far as the coast of Africa.

Its extreme limits are marked by the parallel 47° N at the *Vetta d'Italia*, near the

Brenner, and by the parallel $35^{\circ} 30'$ to the south at the small island of Lampedusa. In consequence of the direction of the peninsula, very much inclined towards the East, it extends in longitude about 12 degrees, from $60^{\circ} 30'$ E. of Greenwich to $18^{\circ} 30'$ from the extreme limit of the western Alps to Cape Santa Maria di Leuca; but a notable part of this zone is occupied by the waters.

Geographical and political boundaries.

Not all the territory, geographically Italian, belongs politically to the Kingdom of Italy. Some of the districts in the northern part belong to the Swiss Confederation, for historical reasons; others, as we shall see later on, in the northern part also, and for the liberation of which Italian soldiers have been fighting from May 1915 until November 1918, had been usurped by Austria; one of the largest islands (Corsica) was ceded to France more than 150 years ago, whilst the insular group of Malta has been in the possession of England for the last 120 years.

Finally in the very middle of the peninsula,

near Rimini, a few square miles of surface form a small independent republic: San Marino, which on account of its great antiquity has always been allowed to remain independent.

The total area of the Kingdom of Italy, all the islands included, is about 287,000 square kilometers: the population according to the latest census, without counting the large number of emigrants, was, before the war, about 36 millions.

Boundaries.

The Kingdom of Italy is bounded on the west by the French Republic, from which it is separated by the chain of the Alps from the Lake of Geneva as far almost as the coast, where the political boundary is marked by the course of the torrent Roja.

This line of boundary is crossed by several much frequented roads, some of which are very important, and open nearly all the year round, and by two important railway lines. One, which coasts along the Tyrrhenian Sea, places the principal commercial port of Italy, Genoa, into communication with the French coast, as far as Toulon and

Marseilles. The other, of equal importance from a political point of view, but considerably more so on account of the technical difficulties overcome in laying it down, joins Turin to Lyons and Paris.) A third railway line will shortly be added to these other two, which from Cuneo, a notable and wealthy town in Piedmont, will cross the Alps and come out near the sea at Nice, a great work of engineering skill.

On the north, Italy is bounded by Switzerland and the Provinces that formerly belonged to Austria. But in this part, for the historical and political reasons already mentioned, the line of boundary is very irregular. With regard to Switzerland, for a certain extension the political boundary corresponds to the geographical boundary, that is to say with the crest of the Alps; but afterwards it suddenly turns southwards until it reaches the shores of one of the great Italian lakes, Lago Maggiore, and passes quite near, almost borders the shores of another lake, Italian also, the Lake of Como. A large triangle is thus formed, with its vertex to the south (at Chiasso) and

which is called the *Canton Ticino*, inhabited by a population of Italian origin, and speaking Italian, but which has been politically united to the Swiss Confederation since centuries.

Then the Italian-Swiss boundary again runs up northwards, and continues in the direction from west to east as far as the Stelvio Alpine Pass.

The frontier between Italy and Switzerland is also crossed by several roads, but the most important means of communication, especially for commerce, is the *Sempione* railway line, which unites northern Italy, especially Milan and Genoa, to west Switzerland and to France; whilst those lines which start from Milan and run along the shores of Lake Maggiore, or pass near the Lake of Como, unite again in the *Canton Ticino*, cross the S. Gottardo and put Italy into communication with central Switzerland and Germany.

The Italo-Austrian boundary was, for the political reasons already mentioned, until a few days ago, very irregular and contrary to any geographical principle. Another large triangle with its vertex to the south, and containing the high and middle valley of

the Adige (Trentino), territory altogether Italian, penetrated into the peninsula, as far as $45^{\circ} 45'$ of latitude, to afterwards remount for about one degree.

Finally the eastern boundary, that followed a very irregular line, instead of ending at the gulf of Quarnero, the natural limit of Italy, terminated to the west of the mouth of the Isonzo, excluding in this way Trieste and the peninsula of Istria with Fiume.

The former Italo-Austrian line of boundary is crossed by a number of roads and other means of communication: among which the railways naturally take a pre-eminent place.

One of the principal railway lines mounts up the valley of the Adige and its affluents, and thus puts Verona and all the northern part of Italy into communication with Austria and Bavaria. It crosses the Alps at the natural boundary of Italy, the Brenner Pass.

Another important line in the direction of N.E. puts the Venetian provinces into communication with Austria and Hungary at Pontebba, on the former boundary.

Another line branches off from this, at Udine, which, running in an easterly direction,

unites the Kingdom of Italy to the Italian provinces on the other side of the former political boundary, and afterwards forms a junction with the Austrian railways. Finally, a line, which runs nearly all the way along the coast, unites Venice to Trieste, now definitely restored to Italy, and forms a junction with the other lines which run from Trieste and Fiume to Vienna and Budapest.

The coasts of Italy.

From the western boundary, near Ventimiglia, as far as the extremity of the peninsula at the Straits of Messina, which separate the mainland from Sicily, the coast of Italy is washed by the Tyrrhene. This coast stretches the length of 1700 kilometers, along which the promontories formed by spurs of the mountains descend almost vertically down to the sea. A number of natural small bays are thus formed, but, given the nature of the ground, there are relatively few ports suitable for big ships in these bays.

Among these few is the port of Savona, from which a railway line starts that runs

towards the interior of the country; the large port of Genoa, the most important in Italy, and one of the first, if not the first, in the whole Mediterranean for international commerce; the Gulf of Spezia, the most powerfully mounted military port, for the defense of the coast, in all Italy.

Then comes the port of Leghorn, this also is very important for commerce, situated at a short distance from the ancient *Porto Pisano*, now buried under the sand, and that was the great emporium of the ancient maritime Republic, Pisa. Farther south are some small ports opposite the island of Corsica. Among these are those of the smaller Island of Elba, an island rich in iron and other minerals, and celebrated as being the residence of Napoleon I after his first abdication.

There is also a tolerably good port at Civitavecchia, the port for Rome until the important works, that have been planned, for a new port at the mouth of the Tiber, at Ostia, will be completed.

The magnificent gulf of Gaeta opens towards the south of the peninsula, in front of

which are the Pontine islands, the principal of which is Ponza. And still further south is the Gulf of Naples, with a first-class commercial and military port of the same name.

Just to the side of Naples majestically rises the Vesuvius, one of the most terrible volcanoes in Europe, the eruptions of which, buried, in the first period of the Roman Empire, both Pompeii and Herculaneum, two rich and flourishing cities. The remains of the former city have been in great part excavated, and furnish most valuable elements for the study of Roman antiquities. Herculaneum has also been to a great extent excavated, and a number of interesting M. S. of the Roman period have come to light, which, although many of them are much burnt, yet a number of fragments of Greek and Roman literature have been deciphered.

There are also some islands in front of Naples, among which Ischia, famed for its hot mineral waters, Procida and Capri, the latter renowned for its beauty, rich vegetation, and the famous blue grotto.

All the territory of the Gulf of Naples presents characteristic volcanic phenomena-

A great number of important industrial manufactures have been established in the surroundings. There are notable metallurgical works and dock-yards at Pozzuoli, whilst the ports of Torre Annunziata and Torre del Greco are noted for their local industries and important fisheries. Sorrento has but a small port, but is situated in the midst of most beautiful surroundings, and blessed by Nature with a perfect climate, and abundance of fruit and vines.

All along the rest of the Italian coast on the Mediterranean, there are large bays with the gulfs of Salerno, Policastro, Sant'Eufemia and Palmi; but on account of the character of the land immediately behind, mountainous and rugged, there are not many ports of notable commercial importance, or of marked utility for military purposes. Amalfi however is worth mentioning, because it was in the past a most powerful republic: now however its splendour has decayed. Finally there is Reggio, a considerable port on the Straits of Messina, but it was greatly damaged by the earthquake of 1898.

Sicily and Malta.

To the west of the Straits of Messina lies the large and most beautiful island of Sicily, triangular in shape with an extension of coast of about 1100 kilometers.

Its northern part, washed by the Mediterranean, includes the magnificent port of Messina, two secondary ports, Patti and Termini, the great commercial port of Palermo, the capital of the island, and the vast but unimportant gulf of Castellammare. In front of the gulf of Patti is the archipelago of the Lipari islands, the most southern of which is called Vulcano, from a mountain which periodically erupts cinders and lava.

On the southern coast of Sicily, in the direction of south-east, are to be found the ports of Trapani and Marsala, this latter noted for the great exportation of wine carried on there. Just in front, between one port and the other, are the Egadi islands, celebrated for the great naval victory obtained by the Romans over the Carthaginians off their shores, and painfully noted during the wicked government of the Bourbons, as the terrible

place of penal servitude for political prisoners. Then come the ports of Sciacca, Porto Empedocle, from which enormous quantities of sulphur are exported, and the spacious roadstead of Terranova, which however is of little or no importance now.

If we continue our way along the western coast of Sicily, washed by the Ionian Sea, we come to Syracuse, one of the most ancient Greek cities, most flourishing once upon a time, wealthy and celebrated for its intellectual life, but which now is but a shadow of its former grandeur, with important archaeological remains.

More to the north is the great harbour of Augusta, that can afford shelter to numbers of the largest war ships: Catania, that was once a flourishing colony and still is one of the most beautiful and most wealthy of Italian cities; Giarre, Riposto, small ports for coasting traffic, and finally Taormina, renowned for its treasures of ancient Greek art, and especially for its Greek theatre, one of the best preserved in all Italy.

The small island of Pantelleria, to the south of the Egadi, and the small group of Lam-

pedusa, that constitutes the most southern extremity of Italian territory, depend upon Sicily for their civil administration. The archipelago of Malta, with the magnificent port of La Valletta, one of the most important maritime fortresses in the Mediterranean, whilst geographically it belongs to Italy, is in the possession of England. Malta, on account of its important strategical position is considered to be one of the keys of the Mediterranean, because, as it is almost a prolongation of Sicily, at the extremity nearest to the coast of Africa, it almost divides the Mediterranean into two parts, and dominates all the transit.

The Ionian Sea.

The coast of the mainland, washed by the Ionian Sea, extends for about 800 kilometers from the Straits of Messina to Cape Santa Maria di Leuca, crowded in ancient times with wealthy Greek cities, of which we have not only glorious ruins, but the historical names, such as Cotrone, Sibari, Metaponto, etc.

But it is very difficult to find really good ports, on account of the configuration of the land.

We may say that there is not even one port in the gulf of Squillace suitable for big ships to enter; in the vast gulf of Taranto, the most spacious in all Italy, there is only the magnificent military port of Taranto, one of the safest and most strongly fortified in all the Kingdom, a most important naval basis, with arsenal and docks.

At a short distance from the extreme point of the Salentine peninsula, which, different from the other parts of southern Italy, is all flat and low, is the small port of Gallipoli.

The Adriatic.

Most unfortunate from a commercial point of view, and still more so from a military, is the eastern coast of Italy on the Adriatic: but these conditions have been somewhat modified by the recent glorious events and Italy's victory over Austria.

From Cape Santa Maria di Leuca, as far as the gulf of Quarnaro, the coast is more

than 1800 kilometers in length, but about 600 of these, along the best part of the coast, only now belong to the Kingdom of Italy. There are only three or four decent ports in all the tract of 1200 chilometers that belonged to the Kingdom of Italy; the others are of no commercial importance whatsoever, and still less so from a military point of view.

Otranto is only a small port for trading ships; but more to the north is the bay of Brindisi, that might be called the key of the Adriatic, because just opposite it is the port of Vallona, in Albania, in the narrowest part of the sea, which, in former times, was called the *Sea of Venice*, because the Venetian Republic ruled over all, from one shore to the other. Brindisi is now-a-days a military naval basis of the greatest importance.

The port of Bari is much frequented by ships trading with the East; the other inferior ports, Molfetta, Trani and Barletta, are used only by smaller traffic boats and for cruising purposes.

The flat even coast of the province of Puglia ends with the promontory of Gargano; and then begins a long expanse of flat and

squallid shore, broken only by the mouths of a few small rivers that flow down to the sea from the Apennines and form small openings where fishing or torpedo-boats can shelter. The only commercial port worth mentioning is Ancona, a celebrated Greek colony in ancient times. It was once upon a time also a good military port, protected by fortifications that stood majestically on the heights overhanging the sea in a precipitous manner: to-day however it is of no use from a military point of view for modern warfare, except as a temporary refuge for medium sized ships. It is moreover much frequented for trading purposes.

From Ancona as far as the mouth of the great river Po, there is nothing that can be called a port, but only havens for sheltering fishing boats: Rimini and Port Corsini, near Ravenna, are tolerably good bases for torpedo-boats.

At the wide delta of the river Po, choked up with marsh land, and sand brought down by the river, the water is too shallow and unfit for navigation. At great cost in money and labour the Po has been made navigable further

inland, and its water used for canals: but there is still a great deal to accomplish before this river can be called fit.

From the delta of the Po, towards the north, the coast is more or less one lagoon, in which the rivers of the Venetian province all empty themselves. The port of Venice was in fact formed by these lagoons, at which the Venetian Republic worked for centuries, to prevent them from being filled up with the soil brought down by the Po and other rivers. This Port now is of the greatest commercial and military importance, although the canals for entering and leaving it are too shallow to allow of the most modern ironclads to enter or to work the ships.

The political boundary was fixed near the lagoon of Grado, the ancient port of the Romans, but which is now of small account. At a short distance from the mouth of the Isonzo is the small port of Monfalcone, after which comes the magnificent anchorage of Trieste, now finally re-united to Italy.

Trieste is a city of the greatest importance from a commercial point of view, and one of the best ports of all Italy: and a number

of different railway lines place it in easy communication with Austria, Germany, Hungary, and the rest of Italy. The peninsula of Istria, triangular in shape, is also inhabited all along the coast by Italians, and can boast of a number of small ports, and a magnificent military port, Pola, protected by a natural barrier of islands, and rendered formidable with its fortifications of every kind. Pola was, during all this terrible War, the safe refuge of the Austrian war-ships; but the bold Italian sailors dared, more than once, to attack those fortifications and cross the formidable barriers, leaving terrible traces of their raids.

If we remount the eastern coast of Istria we find the gulf of Quarnaro, at the head of which is the Italian city of Fiume, which, until quite lately was the commercial outlet for Hungary. Two railway lines unite Fiume with Vienna and Budapest.

The natural geographical boundary of Italy is fixed near Fiume.

Italian islands in the Mediterranean.

The two large islands of Corsica and Sardinia belong, both of them, geographically to Italy; but, as we already stated, the first belongs politically to France, to whom it was ceded in 1765 by the Republic of Genoa.

The coast line of Corsica measures about 900 kilometers; on the eastern shore, looking towards the Tuscan archipelago, there is no port worth mentioning, with the exception of Bastia on its north, and Porto Vecchio on its south: on the west shore, that faces Spain, there are a number of natural small creeks, among which the gulf of San Fiorenzo; that of Aiaccio, with the town of the same name, the capital of the island and the birthplace of Napoleon the Great; that of Valinco; and the gulf of Bonifacio, on the straits which separate Corsica from Sardinia.

Near these straits is the small island of Caprera, famed as being the residence of Garibaldi, the Italian national hero, where he lived, died and was buried, and his tomb is considered as a national monument.

Near Caprera is the little Island of the Maddalena, a most important Italian naval military basis, and vigilant sentinel of the Mediterranean.

The coast line of Sardinia measures more than 1000 kilometers. On the eastern shore is the vast Gulf of Aranci, the landing place for passenger steamers that ply between the island and Genoa, Leghorn, and Civitavecchia. All along the rest of the coast, there are no ports worth mentioning. The principal port of the island is Cagliari, on the south coast; on the west coast is Portovecchio, of considerable importance, as all the quantities of minerals, of various kinds, in which the island is very rich are shipped here: then comes Oristano, Alghero, and, at the north, Porto Torres, with the island of Asinara, lying near, which serves as the quarantine port for Italy, and as Lazzaretto.

Mountains and Lakes.

The Alps which form the boundary of northern Italy, on three sides, are the highest of all the mountain chains in Europe; they

slope down on the Italian side little by little, and form channels for numberless water courses, which, for the greatest part, flow into the Po, the largest river in Italy.

The western chain of the Alps that runs down until it arrives quite close to the sea, suddenly turns off in the direction of N.E., forming, in this way, a kind of frame to enclose the Ligurian Riviera. This chain then joins the principal mountainous system of the Italian peninsula, the Apennines, which form a kind of back-bone down the centre of the peninsula, as far as the extreme point of Calabria, in such a way as to create the two watersheds for the Tyrrhene and the Adriatic. This mountainous backbone causes, consequently, a special characteristic division of the land:

A spacious northern valley, shut in between the Alps and the first tract of the Apennines; this forms the great valley of the Po, and of the rivers in the Venetian inland.

A series of fluvial vallies descending from the Apennines towards the Tyrrhene and the Adriatic, with rivers of a very short

course, shut in on either side by mountains, and, lower down, hills, which stretch out their spurs as far as the sea coast. The different railway lines that place the two slopes into communication, one with the other, run through these vallies.

The river Po has a course of over 600 kilometers, in the direction, nearly always constant, from west to east: it is navigable for more than half its course, but only for barges or flat-bottomed boats; because it varies in depth, at high or low tide, from two to ten metres. Its width also varies from 100 to 500 m. when poor or full: it forms a wide sandy delta near its mouth in the Adriatic. The affluents of the Po; that flow down from the Alps, are many, and with a long course.

1. The most important of these is the Ticino, that enters and passes through the great Lake Maggiore, and it is navigable in part. This river formerly marked the border between Piedmont and the Italian territory, then occupied by Austria. The upper course of this river belongs to the Swiss Confederation (Canton Ticino).

2. The Adda, which enters and flows

through the Lake of Como, and that is also navigable in parts.

3. The Oglio, that flows through the Lake of Iseo.

4. The Mincio, which flows through the Lake of Garda and empties itself into the Po, after passing by Peschiera and Mantua, ancient fortresses of the formidable quadrilateral. These two rivers also, in their upper course, flow through Italian territory, formerly occupied by Austria, but now redeemed by the victorious arms of the Italian army.

The great abundance of these perennial waters renders all the land, comprised between the Alps and the Po, most fertile; in some parts it is also intersected by canals for irrigation. This great abundance of water is largely used for producing electric motor-power, so, in one way and another, all this part of Italy is in constant industrial development, and will make more progress still in the future.

On the right of the Po the affluents that flow down from the extreme line of the Alps, and from the first tract of the Apennines have a much shorter course; some of

them in fact have all the characteristics of torrents.

The chief among all these is the Tanaro, which, united to the Bormida, flows into the Po at a short distance from the town of Alessandria, formerly a fortress of great importance, and from the village of Marengo, celebrated for Napoleon the First's great victory over the Austrians in the year 1800.

Rivers in the Veneto.

The rivers in the Veneto flow down from the Alps and empty themselves near the lagoons on the Adriatic. The largest of all these is the Adige, the upper and middle course of which, was, until a few days ago in the possession of the Austrians; to-day however the whole course of the river is in the hands of the Italians. The Adige is 410 kilometers in length; it flows in the direction from north to south as far as Verona formerly an important fortress of the quadrilateral, and from Verona onwards it runs parallel with the Po.

The other rivers, are the Brenta, the Piave, the Tagliamento, on the banks of all of which

many heroic feats have been accomplished, and much noble blood shed, during the terrible War just ended. All these rivers empty themselves into the lagoons. The Isonzo, on the banks of which there has been hard and constant fighting for the last three years, ends at the extreme western limit of the lagoons.

Other Rivers of Italy.

Italy has been favoured with a number of rivers; but a few only are of any considerable length.

The Arno, that flows through, in its middle and lower course, the fertile plains of Tuscany, in the direction of east to west, empties itself into the sea, near Pisa, an ancient maritime city, and is about 250 kilometers in length.

The Tiber, with a course of more than 300 kilometers, is navigable for a short tract, but for small vessels only. It flows into the Mediterranean, in two separate branches, on one of which stood the ancient port of republican and imperial Rome, Ostia. It is now more than twenty-six centuries ago since that small Latin colony, that was de-

stined later on to become the ruling power of the world, the beacon of ancient civilisation, Rome, to-day the capital of the Kingdom of Italy, was founded on the banks of the Tiber.

Of the other rivers that flow into the Mediterranean the most important are the Garigliano, that marked the boundary between the Papal States and the Kingdom of Naples, and the Volturno. They are respectively 168 and 185 kilometers in length.

On the side of the watershed of the Ionian Sea, the longest river is the Bradano (167 kilometers in length) which flows down from the eastern slope of the Apennines, and follows the limits of that zone of the highlands of Puglia, that takes the name of Murge. It empties itself into the Gulf of Taranto, not far from the ancient Greek colony of Metaponto.

There are a number of rivers that flow down from the Apennines to the Adriatic: but the only one of any real importance is the Pescara (152 kilometers), the source of which is in the highest group of the Apennines, and the Reno (220 kilometers) that flows

through a part of the richest and most fertile plain of the province of Emilia, to the south of the Po, and ends to the south of that vast tract of marsh land, now in great part reclaimed, known under the name of Comacchio.

The Chief Railway-Lines.

Italy, on account of the nature of its soil, in great part very mountainous, presents extraordinary difficulties for the laying down of railway lines. There is an extensive network of railway lines at the widest part of the plains traversed by the Po between the Alps and the Apennines, whilst in the mountainous parts instead, and in the islands, there are comparatively few. A grand railway line runs all through the valley of the Po for its entire length: it starts from Mont Cenis, where it forms a junction with the French railways, and, passing through Turin, Milan, Brescia, Padua terminates at Venice. This line is in conjunction with the principal international lines, as we before stated, that cross through the Alps and put Italy into communication with Switzerland, Germany,

Austria and Hungary. It has junctions also for all the other lines that run along the Alpine vallies, and that terminate at the smaller centres of Piedmont, Lombardy and the Venetian provinces.

Another line, very important also, for Turin, Alessandria, Piacenza, Bologna, follows the course of the Po, gradually however diverging from it, and continuing along the spurs of the Apennines. Both these lines are in conjunction with Genoa, and are connected one with the other by cross lines, very important for general traffic.

There are two very important coast lines, that follow the line of coast nearly the whole length of Italy; one that starts from the levantine Riviera for Genoa, Spezia, Leghorn, Rome, Naples, and continues as far as the extreme point of the peninsula at Reggio; the other that starts from Venice (to-day we can say Trieste) and runs first inland, then approaches the coast, then continues inland, as far as Padua, Ferrara and Bologna, then returns to the coast again by Rimini, Ancona, Foggia, Bari, continues on to Taranto, and finally forms a junction with the former at

Reggio. The former was most difficult to construct, and at very great expense, especially the tract from the French frontier to Spezia, because the mountains run down precipitously to the sea, and made it necessary to bore a very great many tunnels.

Several cross lines unite the two great arteries of the coast lines and reach the other side of the Apennines by means of numberless tunnels, the results of great engineering skill, and remount the vallies of the rivers that flow down from the Apennines. Besides those that unite Genoa to the valley of the Po, we mention only the Parma-Spezia line, the Bologna-Florence-Leghorn, the Ancona-Terni-Rome, the Rome-Castellammare Adriatico, the Foggia-Naples, the Brindisi-Naples, and finally those shorter lines which unite the watershed of the Mediterranean with that of the Ionian Sea.

In Sicily there is one most important railway line, that runs all along the coast, and puts Palermo into communication with all the smaller towns situated on the seashore, and there are two cross lines running from North to South, besides some

less important lines that run inland from the coast.

Sardinia has been up till quite very much neglected as regards railways: there is but one important line in all Sardinia, that starts from the Golfo Aranci and crosses the whole island from North to South, terminating at Cagliari and two cross lines, the Porto-Torres-Sassari-Ozieri line, and another running between Cagliari and the mining districts, both of which form a junction with the principal line.

We must however note that there are several secondary railway lines, one of which starts from Cagliari, runs northwards and then forms two branches: one to the sea, the other to the mountains. There is also another secondary line that cuts the island in two from East to West, from Bosa to Nuoro.

There is but one insignificant railway line on all the island of Elba.

To sum all up, Italy before the War had about 16000 kilometers of railways worked by the State, about 6000 kilometers of railways worked by private Companies, without taking into account those in construction,

or those only planned, and the many thousands of kilometers of secondary railways, steam or electric tramways, or the two-hundred or more regular automobile services, that cover about 8000 kilometers.

We must now however add to all these lines, already mentioned, those that run in the Italian territories finally restored to the Mother-country.

Navigation.

The geographical position of Italy necessitates numerous and frequent maritime communications, not only between the ports on the mainland and the islands, and between one island and the other, but with other countries also.

The War has destroyed in Italy, as elsewhere, a great number of ships, and rendered navigation more difficult and dangerous than ever.

Before this great upheaval, Italy possessed about 850 steamers, of which more than three quarters were iron ships of about 800.000 tons burden, and of about 850.000 horse-power; besides about 5000 sailing vessels of

more than 390.000 tons burden. This without taking into account the ships now being built or not yet fitted up.

Of these ships, a large number belonged to different Italian Navigation Companies, such as the *Servizi Marittimi*, *Navigazione Generale*, the *Italia*, the *Lloyd Italiano*, *Lloyd Sabaudo*, the *Veloce*, the *Società Veneziana*, etc. some belonged to the *Ferrovie dello Stato*; others to the private Companies for fitting up ships.

There are several important navigation lines plying between the different Italian ports: from Genoa, Leghorn, Civitavecchia, Naples, Palermo, Bari and Venice steamers left every day, or at short intervals, that put these ports into constant communication between one another and with Sicily, Sardinia, Elba, and the smaller islands. There are several other navigation lines, with first-class steamers, that ply between Italy and her colonies in Africa, Tripolitania, the Eritrea, and Somaliland.

But the navigation lines, with splendid steamers, for the frequent service between

Italy and America, the ports on the eastern Mediterranean, the islands in the Indian Ocean and the Pacific, are of great importance. The service to and fro between Italy and America is naturally the most important from a commercial point of view, and for the very great transport service for emigrants, of which we shall speak later on.

The men employed in the merchant service, before the War, were about 370.000 in number, including however about 130.000 fishermen. The total movement of men and goods transported in one year, taking into account the years when there was some kind or other of crisis, gives a medium of 900.000 passengers, and 1.400.000 tons of goods.

These figures are certainly not very striking; we must add those of passengers and goods carried by ships sailing under other flags: England and Germany come first, followed closely by Austria-Hungary, France and Holland; whilst Spain with her bigger steamers created a very important competition as regards Italy.

A SHORT DESCRIPTION OF ITALY

The former division of Italy into regions has no longer any political or administrative value to-day; notwithstanding that, on account of the difference of tradition, of climate, temperament and characteristics of the inhabitants, it is still frequently adopted in every-day use.

Up till now Italy was divided into 69 Provinces, grouped together in *regions*.

Piedmont.

Beginning from the north-west we find Piedmont, a vast and wealthy region at the foot of the Alps, covering an area of about 30.000 square kilometers, with a population of three millions and a half. It is famed as having furnished the first army for the redemption of all Italy, and for having, one after the other, aggregated to Piedmont various other parts of Italy, until the constitution of the Kingdom of Italy was proclaimed.

Agriculture and industry are far advanced in

Piedmont: especially so in a few districts on the left of the Po, where there are a number of manufacturies for woollen and cotton goods; whilst on the hills to the right of the river, a quantity of excellent wine is produced, and every kind of agriculture carried to great perfection. A great quantity of rice is grown on the right of the Ticino.

The chief city of Piedmont is Turin, with a population of half a million. It is the sacred city of the Italian regeneration, the capital of the ancient Monarchy of Savoy; it jealously preserves the relics and most precious documents of Italy's revival, and in the temple of Superga, on a hill near Turin, are the tombs of the Kings as far as Carlo Alberto. (Victor Emanuel II and Humbert, the two first Kings of all Italy, are burried in the Pantheon, Rome). The first war for the Independence of Italy was proclaimed at Turin, and it was there that all the exiles banished from other parts of Italy found refuge; and from there King Victor Emanuel II started for the sacred undertaking for the redemption of all Italy.

Turin was also the Capital of the Kingdom of Italy for a few years; but afterwards for military and political reasons the Capital was transferred to Florence. But all Italians remember with gratitude and affection Turin's part in the glorious redemption. It is the city of patriotic monuments: there are records, either in bronze or marble, of many national heroes, in every public Square.

After the transfer of the capital to Florence, Turin became an important industrial city, and is now famed for the superior automobiles manufactured there. It boasts of a greatly renowned University, and a largely frequented polytechnic-school, whilst there are handsome public and private buildings of all kinds, schools, clubs, banks, etc.

Other important cities in Piedmont are Alessandria, Cuneo, Novara, all of them chief provincial towns; then comes Asti, a city celebrated for its ancient republican traditions, and for its production of choice wines. Casale, the ancient capital of Monferrato; Vercelli, centre of the rice-growing district; Saluzzo, former capital of the Marquisate of this name; Aosta, a most ancient

Roman city in the Alpine valley of the same name; Biella, a great manufacturing centre, the heart of the wool industry; Pinerolo and Torre-Pellice, with a flourishing population, protestant in the greater part, of the Waldensian Church.

Liguria.

Liguria is situated on the sea-coast between the French frontier and the Gulf of Spezia, shut in at the back by the last extremity of the Alps, and the beginning of the chain of the Apennines, the spurs of which descend precipitously to the sea. It is a most flourishing region dedicated chiefly to fishing, commerce, and agriculture; as, owing to its mild climate, every square inch of the soil is cultivated, right down to the sea-shore, and rare flowers are grown and exported in large quantities, together with olive oil, oranges and lemons, and choice fruit of all kinds.

It covers an area of 5,200 square kilometers with a population of a little over 1,200,000 inhabitants.

In the centre of the bow formed by the mountains behind, stands Genoa, the great

maritime city, once upon a time Queen of the Mediterranean, rich in marble palaces, magnificent Villas with luxuriant gardens, valuable works of art, and relics of its former grandeur, and of its eastern Colonies. Genoa was the birthplace of Christopher Columbus, of Andrea Doria, the greatest Commander of the sea in the sixteenth Century, of Giuseppe Mazzini, the great Apostle of national unity. This great city can boast, with glory, of having succeeded, in 1746, in driving the warlike Austrian army away from its walls merely by force of the people up in arms, in the same way as it kept at bay, with its own unaided naval forces, the proud German Emperor Barbarossa.

At the present day the city of Genoa, and its surroundings, represent the greatest commercial centre of all Italy, and is the great centre for ship building and the production of machines of every kind. Thousands and thousands of men are employed in the docks at Foce and Sampierdarena, and tens of thousands in the workshops at Cornigliano and Voltri. Its port is crowded with ships from all parts of the world, and its wharfs

overflow with merchandise of all kinds; its granaries (*sylos*), deposits of coal and petroleum, of cotton, natural and industrial products, are more in number and the largest in all Italy, rather in all the Mediterranean. This most important centre counts several very notable and wealthy commercial Firms, and all the principal Navigation Companies have their Offices and representatives there.

Genoa has a well frequented University, with rich public and private libraries, an Upper Commercial School, an Upper School for naval Engineers, several important Picture Galleries and Museums, rich in the glorious records of the ancient Republic. It has a population of 300.000 inhabitants; but, if we include the small industrial cities in its surroundings, it will amount to almost 400.000.

Genoa is connected with the provinces of Piedmont, Lombardy, and other parts of Italy by excellent railway lines, with direct and rapid communications through the Alpine vallies, with Switzerland, France and Germany, and is the outlet for the greater part of the international commerce of central Europe.

The Ponente Riviera, from the French frontier to Genoa, is all one garden; and the favourite resort of all those, Italians and strangers, who like to winter there and bask in the warmth of its sunshine, and inhale its marine breezes. But in this part of the Riviera there are also a number of sea-faring and industrial centres of considerable importance, like Savona, from where a railway starts which goes through the Alps as far as Turin, and all along this line there are a number of industrial and military establishments. Then comes Voltri, another important industrial centre, especially in ironworks. Sestri Ponente, with large ship-building docks; Sampierdarena, also rich in industrial works of all kinds.

The Levante Riviera can boast not only of the beauty of its landscape, a delightful climate, luxuriant vegetation, but of its numberless docks, workshops, ship-building yards, and other industrial works. Rapallo is renowned for its natural beauties, and quite near is Chiavari, with a flourishing industry. Finally there is the Gulf of Spezia, with the neighbouring islands of Palmaria and of

Tino, on which stands one of the most powerful lighthouses of the Italian coast. Spezia is the largest naval arsenal in all Italy: in its surroundings there are important industrial works, a number of private dock-yards, and a great deposits of coal. A great number of ships have been built at the yards in Spezia during the War just ended.

Lombardy.

Under the name of Lombardy is comprised the vast square tract of land included between the Alps, the river Ticino, the Po and the Mincio. It covers an area, including the territory of Mantua, of about 24.000 square kilometers, with a population of 5.000.000.

Lombardy, in its northern part, (excluding the Canton Ticino) is rich in lakes, with splendid Villas on their shores, whilst the scenery is very beautiful; the central and southern part is intensely cultivated with rice and corn, with extensive tracts of rich pasture, that naturally supply food for thousands of cattle; consequently Lombardy is famed for its milk, butter and cheese.

But Lombardy above all is an industrial centre. Favoured as it is with an abundant supply of water, provision is made for a large use of electric motors, so that a few years before the War there were no less than 42,000 industrial establishments with machines of more than 400,000 horse-power that afforded employment to about 700,000 work-people.

The principal industrial centres in Italy are the province of Milan, which absorbs more than half the supply of labour, employed in industry of all kinds, and that of Como, which is in great part dedicated to the silk industry.

Milan is the chief city of Lombardy, with a population of almost 650,000 inhabitants. It is considered, and with reason, to be the most wealthy and flourishing city in Italy; and which is unrivalled for its produce, its commerce, its large number of manufactures, of philanthropical Institutions, and for the elegance and comfort of every day life.

It is also one of the intellectual centres of Italy. Milan can boast, among other glories of the past, of having been the most

powerful Commune of the Middle Ages, and to have heroically resisted against the overpowering violence of Frederick Barbarossa, by becoming the centre and very soul of the Lombard League, which overthrew the power of that German Emperor. As it had been during the last centuries of the Middle Ages the residence of the Court of the Visconti and of the Sforza families, magnificent patrons of art and literature. It was the capital of the shortlived Kingdom of Italy established by Napoleon the First. It is a patriotic city in every sense of the word; and a magnificent monument records how that in the year 1848 the Milanese drove outside its walls the powerful Austrian army, giving rise in this way to the glorious but unfortunate revolution of that year.

One of the glories of Milan is its superb Cathedral, a poem in marble, that dates from the end of the fourteenth Century; and among its monuments of art is the ancient Church of Sant'Ambrogio, the Castle of the Sforza, and among more recent monuments is the Arch of Peace, erected at the time of Napoleon the First. It is the birth-

place of the celebrated writer Alessandro Manzoni.

The are some valuable works of art in Milan, among which, in the Church of the *Grazie*, the celebrated fresco by Leonardo da Vinci: the *Last Supper*. There are a number of most valuable ancient Ms. in the public libraries, whilst the Brera picture Gallery is renowned all over the world. The Polytechnic, Commercial University, and scientific laboratories of the modern school of medicine are unrivalled in all Italy.

In the near vicinity of Milan are other flourishing industrial centres such as: Monza, Gallarate, Sesto, Busto-Arsizio; but we may say that all the soil round Milan for several miles in circumference, is nothing else now but an immense factory.

To give an idea of the wealth of Milan, it will suffice to say that in 1913 it paid about 50 million Italian *Lire* as income tax, that is to say more than the fifth part of that paid by the whole Kingdom of Italy.

At a short distance from Milan, on the river Ticino, there is Pavia, the ancient capital of the Lombards, celebrated for its

University at which Alessandro Volta and Ugo Foscolo both taught. Near Pavia is the famous monastery of Certosa, now a national monument. The Province of Pavia extends for a considerable distance on the other side of the Po, as far as the Apennines, and at its extreme end stands the ancient Abbey of Bobbio, which, in the depths of the dark ages, was the stronghold of learning.

Other cities of great importance are:

Como, at the extreme southern end of the lake of this name (one of the most beautiful in all Italy), famed for its silk industry, that brings in much wealth, and it is also rich in medioeval works of art.,

Brescia, formerly a rival to Milan at the time of the Comunes, and that always defended its independence with enthusiasm. It was however for many centuries occupied by the Venetians, who have left evident traces of their presence in all the public buildings. It is now a notable industrial centre, especially for the manufacture of arms and can boast of important metal works.

Bergamo, situated at the opening of the spurs of the Alps, is an agricultural centre,

but also industrial: in Bergamo also, there are the vestiges of the once wealthy and powerful Commune, and of the later Venetian domination.

Mantua, the birthplace of the great Latin poet Virgil, was formerly the capital of the Duchy of Gonzaga, that flourished during the last centuries of the Middle Ages. It was a formidable and almost impregnable stronghold, even up to the end of the Austrian dominion, on account of its position on the different small lakes formed by the Mincio. All the most important battles of Independence, Curtatone and Goito in 1848, Solferino and San Martino in 1859, were fought in this province, which is also remarkable for its agricultural products and silk manufacturies.

Cremona, famous in ancient times, is the chief town of an agricultural district, which is however little by little assuming a certain industrial importance also.

The Venetian Provinces.

The Venetian region, as it was before the present War, which has however added greatly to its territory, covered an extension

of ground of about 25,000 square kilometers, with a population of 3,600,000 inhabitants.

It is pre-eminently agricultural in character, and extended between the Po, the Mincio, the Alps (excluding however the middle and upper course of the Adige) and the sea, with a most irregular boundary line on the east, contrary to ethnographical and geographical laws.

About one half of this region has greatly suffered on account of this present War, and from the partial, temporary Austrian occupation of last year; but its inhabitants have supported the most cruel treatment and terrible privations with heroic fortitude. It will not be easy to repair all the vandalism inflicted, and the damage done to this flourishing region by the iniquitous enemy, in a short time. A great part of its industry, of which it was justly proud, and that was most promising, has been nearly all destroyed: the extensive works for reclaiming the marsh-land near the sea have been ruined, a part of the population has been obliged to abandon this region and are refugees in other parts of Italy: the bombardment and the incursions

by flying machines have devastated cities, towns, villages.

The principal city of the Venetian Provinces is Venice, the city of beauty and art above all, glorious for its records of the ancient Republic, one day Queen of the Adriatic and ruler over all the eastern Mediterranean. Its port is of the greatest importance, the greatest of any in the Adriatic, with the exception of Trieste, and is separated from the sea by a narrow stretch of sand, with channels for its outlet kept open by constant dredging. Venice before this War was most prosperous commercially, but the peculiar conditions of the War in the Adriatic have reduced this commercial prosperity to nothing. A number of valuable and rare works of art have been injured by the flying-machines, but its most valuable monuments have been saved, as they were covered over with wood and bags of sand. Although the commercial prosperity of Venice has suffered so greatly, the port has attained great importance as a military and maritime basis for the defense of the Upper Adriatic.

The population of Venice in 1914 amoun-

ted to more than 160,000 inhabitants. Its magnificent buildings, such as the Church of St. Marks, the Doge's Palace, the Arsenal, out of which so many victorious naval forces have sailed, the many Churches, so rich in marbles, the monuments erected to the great Captains of the *Serenissima*, statesmen, and artists, form the admiration of the whole world. The canals that intersect the city in every direction, the bridges that unite the numerous islands on which Venice is founded, the picturesque aspect of the lagoon, all give a special character to the city that is unequalled all the world over. Venice can now add more recent glory to her former glory, to the glories of the past, to the many records of her ancient grandeur. Seventy years of Austrian rule has left no traces on the soul of the people, who can recall with pride the iron resistance opposed in 1848-49 to the siege imposed by Austria, when the great patriot Daniele Manin led and encouraged the Venetians to resist.

There are a few local industries in Venice, among which the artistic glass works hold the first place, as, before the War, there was

a considerable exportation for this rare branch of commerce. On account of its favourable situation, Venice is the natural outlet for all trade with the East, and had already after 1866 become an important commercial centre; and when the works, now in hand, for enlarging and improving the Port will be finished Venice will increase more and more every day in prosperity.

There is an excellent commercial school, a number of large and highly considered scientific and literary Institutions, with large public Libraries, in some of which are the most valuable collections of ancient M. S. in the world, added to all of which are the unique Picture Galleries and Museums, that render Venice a centre for literary and artistic studies.

Situated on the extreme southern margin of the lagoon is Chioggia, near the mouth of the Adige, with a tolerably good port for commerce.

The second city as regards importance in the Venetian Provinces is Padua, birthplace of the Latin historian Titus Livius, the ancient stronghold of the Comune in the Middle,

Ages, the capital of the extended and greatly-feared Lordship of the *Carraresi* during the period of Renaissance. Padua can boast one of the oldest and most celebrated Universities in the world, to which strangers of all nations flocked from earliest times. The poet Torquato Tasso, who wrote the epic poem *Gerusalemme Liberata*, was a student at this University; whilst Galileo Galilei was Professor of mathematics there. This University has preserved a great part of its ancient renown up to the present day.

There are several monuments in this city, among which the Chapel of the Scrovegni, painted by Giotto, the Cathedral of St Anthony, with most rare sculptures by the great master Donatello; the great hall of the *Ragione* and several other works of architecture and art.

This part of the Venetian Provinces is eminently agricultural; and its prosperity has been increased by draining and reclaiming the vast extensions of marsh land near the Lagoon. A great many large industrial manufactures have been established, for producing artificial manures, for making and

refining sugar, and there are important metal works, etc.

The beautiful hills called *Colli Euganei*, are famed for their rich sources of mineral waters, and at Arquà is the tomb of the great poet Francesco Petrarch.

Verona is the third city of the Venetian Provinces as regards population (about 90,000 inhabitants). It was already an important city at the time of the Romans, whose dominion is seen in the magnificent amphitheatre still in good preservation. It was the capital of the Kingdom of Italy during the first period of the Middle Ages, under the Gothic domination, later on it was a powerful Commune; held a magnificent court at the time of the lordship of the Scaligeri; and all its grand monuments such as the tombs of the Scaligeri, the Basilica of San Zeno still tell of its former grandeur.

It was a formidable stronghold during the Austrian dominion, on account of its position near the last turn of the Adige, on the road to the Trentino, and near all the roads that run along the lake of Garda, and is naturally

also now a very important post for military strategical purposes.

The province in its lowest part (the Veronese vallies) is noted for its extensive rice fields, whilst the wines produced on the hills are considered the finest grown in all Italy. All the eastern shore of the Lake of Garda belongs to the province. The southern is noted for its beautiful scenery, and delightful climate, crowded with elegant villas, a most enjoyable site for residence; that the Germans had done their best to germanise, by establishing colonies of visitors there.

Vicenza, the patriotic city near the Beric hills, is the chief town of a province and can boast of a flourishing industry, especially in woollen goods, concentrated chiefly in Schio, at the north, which industrial centre has unfortunately been in great part destroyed during the War. On the Asiago plateau in the highest parts, there are small districts with a population of German origin.

Treviso, that was a flourishing and renowned centre in the Middle Ages, noted for its power and wealth, is also of considerable importance. Its inhabitants are entirely

dedicated to agriculture: Conegliano was celebrated for its choice wines: unhappily the whole place is now in ruins owing to the War.

The province is traversed by the river Piave, that will be recorded in the history, together with the neighbouring wood of Montello, and with the massive Monte Grappa in the province of Vicenza, as the sacred ground where the Italian soldiers held out so tenaciously in resisting the invaders, and as the altar on which so many thousand young heroes voluntarily sacrificed their lives for the redemption and the greatness of their country.

Belluno, with the neighbouring town of Feltre, Udine with the Cadore, the birthplace of the immortal painter Titian, form two other Venetian provinces, the former all mountainous, traversed by the upper course of the Piave; the other mountainous to the north, but level in the centre and to the south, both of them vigilant custodians of the ancient boundaries of Italy, and rich in patriotic traditions.

In the province of Udine there is a small corner among the mountains, towards the east, inhabited by groups of Slavonians.

The Emilia and Romagna.

The district included between the Po and the Apennines, through which the ancient Roman *Via Aemilia* ran, goes under this name. United to this is the region between the Appennines and the sea which extends as far as Rimini, called Romagna, that covers altogether an area of more than 20.000.000 square kilometers with about 2.750.000 inhabitants.

This part of Italy is splendidly cultivated, and is known for its excellent breed of cattle, and for dairy produce of every kind, for its successful commerce in alimentaries, and for its excellent chemical industries.

We will begin at the west and mention all the principal towns: Piacenza on the Po, formerly a stronghold, with 40.000 inhabitants; Parma, that was the capital of a flourishing Duchy of the Farnese and later on of the Bourbons: once upon a time the Athens of Italy. Parma is rich in modern works of art; it can boast of an University. Its population amounts to 52.000; the surrounding

country is very fertile and cultivated with all the most modern systems. It has also an industrial centre of considerable importance.

Reggio, the ancient Commune, that was formerly a centre for art; Modena the ancient capital of the Estense duchy, seat of an University with great traditions. Ferrara that gloried in the magnificent intellectual and artistic life of the House of Este, of which many records are left, is at the present day a centre of agriculture of considerable importance, owing to extensive systems of drainage and reclaiming of the low lands towards the sea.

The so-called Emilia ends with Bologna, the glorious Comune of the past, the seat of one of the oldest and most famous Universities in Europe, and which is now a wealthy, industrious, and flourishing modern city, with a population of 180.000 inhabitants.

Romagna begins where Emilia ends, a very wealthy district also, highly cultivated and with many flourishing industrial establishments.

The principal towns are all situated along the railway line leading to the sea, Imola,

Faenza, Forli, Cesena, Rimini, all formerly seats of small, powerful and much feared Barons and Lords in the Middle Ages, and all have retained something of their ancient splendour.

Outside this railway line, but on a junction of it, is Ravenna, the ancient capital of the Gothic and Byzantine period, which preserves in its Churches, in some of its palaces, and in several other monuments, the evident stamp of the grand Byzantine art. This town is also sacred to the heart of all Italians, as here, in a modest tomb, are the mortal remains of Italy's greatest poet Dante Alighieri.

Near Rimini, on Monte Titano, is the smallest republic in the world, the republic of San Marino, that has only 8000 inhabitants, and that governs itself with the ancient laws of the Italian Communes in the Middle Ages.

Tuscany.

Tuscany, the heart of Italy, as it was here that the Italic popular speech that became the national language had origin, and because it was in Tuscany that the arts and lite-

rature have always, in all times, attained their highest development, lies between the Mediterranean and the Apennines, bounded on the north by Liguria, and on the south by the Latium.

The whole of this region covers an area of more than 24.000 square kilometers, and has a population of about 2.750.000. The climate is mild, and the soil most fertile, although there is a large tract of land still infested by malaria, or marshes, which are now however being reclaimed, little by little, and given over for cultivation. Its northern part, where the spurs of the mountains run down almost to the sea, are the Apuan Alps celebrated for its rich quarries, of the finest marble known: the centre of the marble trade is Carrara.

There are a number of mines of lignite and beds of peat all along the valley of the Arno, the principal river of this region. Towards the south is the majestic Monte Amiata, rich in mines of copper, mercury, borax and other valuable minerals. At Volterra there are salt mines.

Tuscany is constantly increasing its indus-

trial products: and quite recently a number of chemical industries have been opened, and several iron and steel foundry works set up. The glass and chinaware produced in this region is celebrated, and the wool and silk manufactures, for which Tuscany was formerly famous, are now being re-established.

The chief town in Tuscany is Florence, rich in numberless celebrated works of art, mediaeval and modern, and that boasts of being the birthplace of the greatest men of letters and painters, sculptors and architects the world has ever known: Dante and Machiavelli, Giotto, Donatello, Michelangelo, Galileo and many others. It was one of the most powerful Communes, then capital of the Grand-Duchy of Tuscany, and afterwards capital of the Kingdom of Italy from 1864 to 1870. Florence the beautiful, the modern Athens, this city whose past is one glorious record of Art in its highest meaning, and where, in the Church of Santa Croce are the tombs of Italy's greatest men, a new life has sprung up, and, in addition to its flourishing Literary and Scientific Institutes, Libraries,

Art Galleries and Museums, that feed the intellectual and scientific life of modern times, there is a constant development in Industry, in every branch.

Florence has about 240.000 inhabitants: its surroundings are noted for the charming scenery, and they are very thickly populated.

The great centres for industry in Tuscany are Prato, Pistoia, Sesto and Fucecchio.

Pisa, the ancient maritime city, of which there are so many glorious records, is left a little out in the cold, but its marvellous architectural group of the Cathedral, Baptistry, and the leaning Tower has made it famous.

Leghorn, the principal port of Tuscany, with important docks and ship-building yards comes second as regards the number of its inhabitants (110.000) in all the region.

Lucca, the ancient Républic, the rival of Florence, is a great agricultural centre.

Siena, in past times, was also a flourishing Republic, and is, as regards the Fine Arts, one of the most important towns in all Italy. The whole of the province is famed for the superiority and abundance of its agricultural products, principally wine.

The Latium.

Under the ancient name of Latium we mean all that region comprised between the Anti-Apennines and the sea, from Mount Argentaro to Mount Circello. It forms one whole and vast province, that of Rome, which covers an area of 12.000 square kilometers, with 1.335.000 inhabitants.

A portion of this territory is not cultivated, partly owing to the malaria, and partly for historical and economical reasons; although some recent wise laws have provided the means for doing away with this unfortunate state of things for the future. But where cultivation is carried out on a rational and modern system, the fertility of the soil is so great that the products are excellent.

All kind of industry until a few years ago was wanting in all Latium, but to-day there is a most promising movement in some of the smaller places, especially along the course of the Aniene, affluent of the Tiber.

We cannot treat Rome, the principal city of the Latium and the capital of the Kingdom

of Italy, with a population of 550.000 inhabitants, in a few words.

Rome has no rival in all the world, either as regards its glorious history, grand associations of the past, or the imposing grandeur of its monuments. The centre of Catholic Christianity, seat at the same time of the Head of the Roman Catholic Church, and capital of the Kingdom of Italy, Rome has undergone a great transformation during the last fifty years. By the side of ancient Rome, an entirely new city has sprung up, which is extending always more and more beyond the old city inside the walls; and, just as the change is great in its buildings, so is there an immense contrast in the life of the city, which tends ever more and more to become an industrial centre, notwithstanding that it preserves its character as a *city of the past*.

The industry will be greatly increased when the Tiber will be rendered navigable, and the grand projects for putting Rome into direct communication with the sea will be realised. And when the Roman Campagna will have been reclaimed, steps for doing which have already been taken, most probably at a not

far distant future Rome will be one of the largest and most important agricultural centres of all Italy.

Other towns in the province are: Civitavecchia, the present seaport of Rome; Viterbo, with its glorious mediaeval monuments; Frosinone and Velletri, also most ancient cities. The Alban Hills in the neighbourhood of Rome are celebrated for their natural beauties, and recall to students of history, with their names and monumental ruins, the first centuries of Rome, and her struggles with the *latinae gentes*.

Umbria.

In the centre of the peninsula, between Latium, Tuscany and the Apennines, lies the verdant Umbria, a vast extent of territory about 9800 square chilometers, with a population of about 700.000 inhabitants. It is a mountainous region, with a few plains along the course of the rivers. It is richly wooded, and with much pasture land, with a splendid extent of water, the famous Lake Trasymenus (Trasimeno) and a number of rivers, all of which flow into the Tiber, and provide motor

power for various industrial works along their course, as the province of Umbria is very industrial.

The chief town of the province is Perugia, a city sacred to art, the home of great painters, among whom the master of Raphael, Pietro Perugino. Perugia has a free university (not endowed by the State), a most valuable picture gallery, public and private buildings of the greatest architectural beauty.

Just below Perugia stands Assisi, sacred to the memory of the great apostle of charity, St Francis, and celebrated for the marvellous paintings by Giotto, in the great Basilica there.

Terni is entirely given over to industry which takes the powerful motor force for its iron and steel works and for the manufacture of arms from the celebrated waterfall of the *Marmore*; besides various other metal works and woven goods, and for the production of calcium. Owing to the War, Terni has become one of the greatest centres for producing all military requirements.

Of all the other towns in Umbria, Foligno, in addition to its many artistic treasures, has acquired a considerable industrial develop-

ment, chiefly paper making; Orvieto, celebrated for its beautiful Cathedral, a miracle in art; Rieti, a centre for growing corn; Spoleto, one of the most ancient towns in Italy, founded about 700 years before Rome. Rich mines of lignite are to be found in this region.

The Marche.

La Marca, generally called the Marche, is the region comprised between the Apennines and the sea, from Rimini to the mouth of the Tronto. It has a population of 1.100.000, and covers an area of 9690 square chilometers, a part of which is very mountainous and covered with forests. The hills and the narrow stretch of plain, between this and the sea, are well cultivated. There are some sulphur mines, but not very productive. The principal town is Ancona, a most ancient Greek city, with a good commercial port and several manufactures of different kinds. It numbers 65.000 inhabitants. Ancona was very prosperous in the Middle Ages, and was for some time a rival to Venice in the Adriatic.

Among the other smaller towns is Pesaro,

birthplace of the great musical composer Rossini, and the town boasts of a renowned School of Music; Urbino, situated on the heights, formerly the capital of a powerful Duchy, and famed as being the birthplace of the immortal painter Raphael. To-day it is the seat of a small free university, and is enriched by several artistic monuments.

Camerino was also the capital of a small State in past times and is also the seat of a free university and can boast of some highly artistic monuments of the Renaissance.

Macerata is situated in the midst of hills, and has also an university, but incomplete, and now in the hands of the State. It is in the heart of a district famed for the great fertility of the soil. Further to the south is Ascoli, a most ancient Italian town, noted for several branches of industry, especially silk goods; Fermo, the seat of a flourishing school of workers.

Fabriano must not be forgotten, as it has a very old established and important paper manufactory; and Iesi, with several industrial establishments, especially for silk goods.

The Marche have only one important railway line, that runs along the coast, with a junction Ancona-Rome, and a few secondary lines; there is however a good automobile service between the stations on the plain, and the inhabited places on the hills.

The Abruzzi.

The region known under the name of the Abruzzi is also comprised between the Adriatic and the Apennines; and is composed of two parts, the one included between the two branches of the backbone of the Apennines, which is called the *conca d'Aquila*; the other between the eastern branch and the Adriatic. Taken together with the adjoining province of Campobasso (Molise) it covers an area of more than 16.000 square miles, with a population of a million and a half.

Given the nature of the ground, over which the summit of the great mountain *Gran Sasso d'Italia* towers, more than 2900 metres in height, a part of this region is either altogether sterile, or covered with woods; but on the hills, and in the valleys near the

sea, the vegetation is flourishing, but renders little. In some of the lowest parts of the Molise, malaria has largely contributed to reduce the number of the population, but the extensive drainage works, though they have given good results, are still too limited to attain to any great success. Moreover a large extent of this region is subjected to frequent earthquakes, one of which, quite recently, devastated the district of Avezzano and Aquila, and the site of the Lake of Fucino, which had been drained and reclaimed as most fertile soil for growing corn. The Abruzzi is famed for the beautiful lace and embroidery worked by the women, and formerly there was a considerable manufacture of steel blades for knives; various other industries of all kinds have recently been started.

This region can boast of a splendid population, physically and intellectually, both men and women robust and intelligent. Many of Italy's renowned magistrates and literary men, artists and soldiers come from the Abruzzi.

The principal town is Aquila, the intellec-

tual centre of this region; Sulmona, which increases every day in industrial importance, both in metal works and woven goods; Chieti producing excellent corn and other cereals and alimentaries of various kinds; Lanciano, famed for its manufactory of sewing needles; Campobasso for razor and knife blades, and finally this industrial centre ends with Teramo, where all kinds of artistic and useful articles in earthenware are made. On the sea coast the only ports that are accessible for moderately sized trading ships are Ortona and Pescara; all the other inhabited places on the shore are merely havens for fishing-boats.

The Campania.

This region, the shores of which are washed by the Mediterranean, between Terracina and the Gulf of Policastro, is bounded on the east by the Abruzzi, the Puglie, and the Basilicata, and is the most thickly populated district in all Italy, as, on a surface covering 16,250 square kilometers, there are almost three millions and a half of inhabitants. But this population is unequally distributed, be-

cause in some parts, naturally the mountainous, to the east and to the south, it is very scarce, whilst it is dense all along the coast and towards the centre.

The soil is highly fertile, so much so that in ancient times it was called *Campania Felix*; and this source of wealth and prosperity is daily increasing owing to the extraordinary development that industry and commerce is taking everywhere, especially round Naples.

The principal centre of the Campania is the city of Naples, with a population so dense as to constitute by itself about one fifth of the whole population of this region. The port of Naples ranks as the first of all the ports in the Kingdom of Italy, not so much as regards trade and commerce, but on account of the passenger traffic. A number of the most important shipping lines, especially those plying between Italy and the Far East, and America, have their head offices here. Naples was an ancient Greek city, a maritime republic in the Middle Ages, and capital of the Kingdom of Naples; under the Bourbons, consequently it can boast of important

monumental vestiges of these various epochs. The Naples University is the most largely attended in all Italy, and is the centre of all the intellectual movement of the south. The climate is temperate and mild, and there is abundance of agricultural products, of fruit and wine, so that all this, added to the exceptional natural beauties of its surroundings, the interest and striking effects of Vesuvius, often in eruption, always attract a number of strangers.

A few miles from Naples is the ancient Greek-Roman city of Pompeii, buried under cinders erupted from Vesuvius, in the First century of the Christian Era; the greater part of which has however been excavated, and the excavations are carried on uninterruptedly. Herculaneum is still nearly all under the hard bed of lava, which renders it difficult, or nearly impossible to excavate.

There is a thick network of industrial establishments all round Naples, some of which are of considerable importance. Such as the metal works at Pozzuoli, the docks and ship-building yards at Castellammare,

the alimentary products at Portici and Torre Annunziata. The sponge and coral fisheries are so many sources of wealth for the towns all along the coast.

In the province of Caserta, which is noted for its beautiful and artistic Royal Palace, a notable industrial centre is Isola del Liri, famed for its paper manufactures. Gaeta is an ancient maritime republic.

Other important towns are: Capua, Benevento, Salerno, all of them in past times capitals of powerful Duchies of the Longobardians. Benevento must be noted because it was for many centuries under the Papal dominion, of which it still preserves the vestiges. Salerno, had quite recently set up a well developed industry in cotton goods; Amalfi, one of the most smiling towns in the south of Italy, was formerly a very powerful maritime republic with large colonies in Africa.

Apulia.

The region of the so called Puglia (Apulia) extends between the Apennines and the Adriatic, to the south of the Abruzzi as far

as the extreme end of the Salentine peninsula. Its shores are also washed by the Jonian Sea as far as the northern extremity of the gulf of Taranto. It covers a surface of over 19.000 square kilometers and has a population of about 2.200.000 inhabitants. It is chiefly level land, with a massive mountain at the promontory of Gargano, with a small table-land in the centre (Le Murge). The district would be very rich as regards fertility of the soil, if it were not for the scarcity of water, in some parts it is infested by malaria. The many small ports, all along the coast, that we have already mentioned, render this region good service from a commercial point of view.

Apulia is divided into three provinces; in the most northern part of which is the town of Foggia, situated in the midst of an apparently deserted district, but it is an important market for agricultural products; the town itself is modern and elegant, and is surrounded by a number of smaller but notable towns: San Severo, an industrial centre; Cerrignola, the general market for all the wines grown in this region; Manfredonia, that re-

cords in its name its founder, the Suabian King Manfred; as a port it is of little importance. Near the promontory of the Gargano, separated from the sea by a thin strip of land only, are a few little lakes, which by arduous engineering could be drained, and the land reclaimed for agricultural purposes, or they could be turned into excellent military ports, by connecting them with the sea.

The province of Bari is in far better condition as agriculture is highly developed, and a quantity of excellent olive oil and choice wines grown, whilst the fisheries and commercial navigation bring in great wealth. Industry also, notwithstanding the scarcity of water, is continually on the increase, thanks to electric motor-power that has been conducted here from a great distance.

Bari the chief town of all the Apulia, can now count more than 100,000 inhabitants, and is a commercial port of the first order: a number of good shipping lines have their offices here, and there are a number of banks, and commercial houses of considerable importance.

It is the seat of an Upper School of Commerce, and of other Institutions for high class studies. Its principal monument is the cathedral, of great artistic note, dating from the eleventh century.

The secondary towns are situated all along the coast, to the north and to the south of Bari, and are as follows: Barletta, Trani, Molfetta, a highly industrious town, to the north; Monopoli to the south; more inland are Andria, Ruvo, Bitonto, all of them agricultural centres. A fact to be noted is that in Apulia, even the smallest towns are thickly inhabited, because farmers live in the towns, and very seldom live on the ground they cultivate.

The most southern of the three provinces is that of Lecce, with its capital of the same name situated at a short distance from the sea on the Salentine peninsula. It is not however the most thickly populated town, as it is surpassed by a long way by Taranto, which has a splendid military port, that can afford shelter to the largest navies, with large dry-docks.

Brindisi also, although thinly populated,

can boast, on account of its most favoured position as a port, not only a notable commercial importance, but it has now been made an important naval military basis. Brindisi was, before the War, the landing place for passengers and the mail from India and Egypt on their way to England. At the time of the Roman Empire it was also an important naval Station; the grand Appian Way that led to Rome started from Brindisi. Otranto, once upon a time the capital of the province, has now lost a great part of the importance it had in the Middle Ages.

The Basilicata.

This region, although covering an area of 10,000 square chilometers, has less than half a million of inhabitants, and is consequently the most thinly populated part of all continental Italy. It is formed by the mountainous mass of the southern Apennines, enclosed between the Apulia, the Campania and Calabria, with a narrow opening on the sea, without any ports, and hardly any level land fit for cultivation,

The Basilicata is naturally a poor district, consequently it sends the greatest number of emigrants abroad. The towns are all situated on the heights, where the nature of the ground allows of a certain kind of cultivation. The chief town of this region is Potenza, with a population of 18.000; other towns, still less populated are Melfi, that stands in a less sterile zone; Matera, the former capital of the province, with a certain industrial movement. This region was the birth-place of several illustrious men, celebrated in science and literature, among whom was the great Latin poet Horace; and in modern times Mario Pagano, a philosopher of the eighteenth Century, who was hanged for his political views during the rule of the Bourbons in 1799.

Calabria.

This is the extreme outskirt of the peninsula between the gulfs of Policastro on the Tyrrhene, and the gulf of Taranto on the Ionian Sea; in some parts the mainland forms a narrow strip running out between the two seas. It is a very mountainous region; but

the rivers that flow down from the two water-sheds on either side to the sea, open out a few valleys with some level soil, which could be cultivated and inhabited if it were not for the malaria. Important drainage works are now however being carried out, so that when the land is properly drained it will be repopulated. The hills or rather spurs of the mountains are most fertile, so that the country is relatively prosperous, rich and thickly populated in parts. On a surface that covers more than 15.000 square chilometers, there is in fact almost a million and a half of inhabitants.

One of its greatest sources of wealth are the forests, of which La Sila is the largest. It also possesses rich mines of sulphur, copper, silver, and lignite, that during the War have been much more worked than formerly. There are also considerable industrial establishments for iron-work of all kinds, articles in celluloid, distilleries for obtaining different essences from the oranges and lemons, that abound. The silk and wool industry that was also considerable in past times has now taken a remarkable development. The

principal ports of Calabria are Reggio, Gioia Tauro, Pizzo, Cotrone, Sant'Eufemia, Marina di Catanzaro, all of secondary importance, with the exception of the first mentioned which, on account of its favorable position on the Straits of Messina, has a certain activity.

Unfortunately the whole of this district is subject to terrible earthquakes, the last most appalling and disastrous one in its results was in 1908, which destroyed Reggio and a great part of the buildings over all the province.

The provinces of Calabria are three in number: the most northern is Cosenza. The town of this name stands on the heights and has about 25.000 inhabitants; its chief industry is silk and cotton spinning. Other towns of this province are Rossano, Castrovillari, Cassano and Corigliano.

Then comes the province of Catanzaro, the town of the same name is situated at a little distance from the sea near the gulf of Squillace; but it has a port (Marina di Catanzaro) to which it is united by a railway.

A town worthy of note is Cotrone, in an-

cient times a Greek colony, celebrated for having been the seat of the famous school of Pythagoras; Pizzo, where the ex-king of Naples, Gioachim Murat, was shot; Monteleone, former capital of the province, rich in monuments, picture galleries with works by the old masters, schools, and various other Institutions; Mileto, an important town at the time of the Norman rule, but in great part ruined by earthquakes.

The most southern province of the peninsula is that of Reggio Calabria. The principal town is new, springing up again rapidly upon the ruins of the last earthquake, which almost depopulated it, and did away with its prosperity, its commercial activity and its monuments. Its present population is but 45,000.

And in the same way Gioiosa Ionica, Caulonia, Stilo, the birthplace of the martyr philosopher Campanella, Polistena, Gerace, Palmi, Bagnara, Scilla, all towns rebuilt more than once in consequence of earthquakes, and now flourishing anew.

It must be remembered that the whole of the Calabrian coast on the Ionian Sea was

once upon a time crowded with flourishing cities, when numerous Hellenic colonies settled there, from which fact this coast has derived its name of *Magna Grecia*. To-day nothing remains of that former prosperity except the name, some half ruined temple, a few inscriptions and fragments of statues.

A fact of considerable interest is, that in Calabria, and especially in the province of Cosenza, there is a prosperous colony of Albanians, who have preserved their native language, their habits and manner of dress.

Sicily.

Sicily, which is the largest island in the Mediterranean, covers a surface of more than 25.700 square kilometers, with a population of more than 3.800.000; which means that, after Lombardy, it is the most thickly populated region in Italy.

Its position in the centre of the Mediterranean gives it great commercial importance; the abundance of its agricultural products, not so plentiful as formerly, but still very

considerable, constitutes, together with the great quantity of sulphur that Sicily exports, a source of considerable wealth. Unfortunately the forests and woods that in ancient times abounded have in great part been ruthlessly cut down, but the forest laws are having effect and young trees are planted. In some parts of the island there are mines of copper, zinc, asphalt and salt, but they are not very productive. There is little industry in comparison to the number of the inhabitants; in the western districts however several industrial establishments have taken a satisfactory development.

The capital of Sicily is Palermo, a very ancient Greek city, afterwards occupied by the Carthaginians, and finally by the Romans. It was the capital also during the rule of the Arabs, who have left numberless traces of their occupation, all over the island, in the monuments and buildings, in the habits and language of the people; and it continued to be the capital during the Norman and Suabian reigns. When the House of Anjou was driven out by the celebrated revolution of

the Vespers, Palermo was again the capital under the Aragon and Spanish rule. All these successive foreign dominations have left their mark on the city. The population is over 340,000; it is rich in monuments of art and glory. In the port of Palermo before the War, on an average more than 7000 ships came in and left with over 900,000 tons of goods. It has large ship-building yards, dry-docks, warehouses, etc., and is consequently a port second only to Genoa and Naples.

As regards intellectual culture Palermo ranks as one of the first cities in all Italy, as it has a University very largely frequented and a number of scientific Institutes and Libraries.

Monreale, at a short distance, is celebrated for its Cathedral built in the Arab-Norman style of architecture, covered with mosaics, one of the most rare monuments of Italian mediaeval art in existence. Other towns in the province are Corleone, Termini and Cefalù, a Phoenician city. The small island of Ustica also depends from Palermo.

The second city in Sicily as regards population and importance was Messina, not yet

arisen from its ruins caused by the terrible earthquake of 1908, when, more than 60.000 of its inhabitants perished, and the greater part of the city became a heap of bricks and ruins. Its population now is 127.000. The port of Messina, military and commercial, could boast of a movement in ships and goods of considerably more importance than that of Leghorn or Venice. It was also a city where intellectual culture flourished.

Another very important city is Catania, at the foot of Mount Etna; a city of more than 210.000 inhabitants: and with handsome public and private buildings, fine broad well paved streets, so it ranks with the first as a modern city. It has been frequently nearly all destroyed by earthquakes, in recent times also, so that there are traces only of its ancient grandeur. Catania is the most industrious city in all Sicily, and does great trade especially in silk, rope and wrought iron. The port is largely frequented.

There are several smaller towns in this province in all of which traces are to be seen of the Greek, Carthaginian, Arab and Suanian rule, and they are populated more or

less in the same degree as the smaller towns on the continent, Caltagirone has about 44.000 inhabitants; Acireale more than 36.000.

The most ancient and splendid Greek city of Syracuse is the chief-place of the province of the same name, although there are others that take precedence as regards population, as Modica, that has 56.000 inhabitants. The remains of the Greek period, among which is the wonderful theatre, the celebrated quarries (*latomie*) form a very great attraction to lovers of art and antiquities, not to speak of the extraordinary natural beauties of Syracuse and its surroundings. The ancient capital of the region, *Augusta*, is situated on a small island, with one of the most perfect natural ports in all the Mediterranean; but of little commercial importance.

The other chief towns of the island are Girgenti, famous for its Greek temples, Trapani, and, quite inland, Caltanissetta. In the province of Trapani is Marsala, a town that is rapidly increasing in importance. It now has a population of more than 70.000 inhabitants. It was here that Garibaldi disembarked with his " Thousand " men, in 1860,

This island from which the House of Savoy took its Royal title that was in use from the year 1716, until the constitution of the Kingdom of Italy, is unhappily in very unfavourable condition in comparison to the other parts of Italy, both as regards number of the population, commerce and trade and also as regards intellectual culture. The blame must be given to misgovernment and neglect, owing in great part to the fact that Sardinia is detached from the continent, with bad means of communication, to the insalubrity of the climate, in some parts, the scarcity of roads, and various other causes, not excluding the proud indomitable character of its inhabitants. Over a surface of 24.000 square kilometers, including the numerous small islands off the coast, the population is not more than 870.000 inhabitants, whilst a hundred years ago it was only 350.000.

A large part of this territory, also the hills and the plains, is still uncultivated not to say left in complete abandonment, not because the soil is sterile, but because there are not

sufficient hands to work it, or because the malaria prevents the people from living there. Where the ground is cultivated, corn and all grain flourish and give abundant crops; the same with the olive trees and the vines; whilst the breeding of cattle, sheep and horses is a source of prosperity in certain parts.

Sardinia moreover is rich in minerals of all kinds; in the south-west there are mines of lead, silver, zinc, copper, iron, antimony, manganese and lignite. Another source of considerable wealth are the fisheries, especially the tunny, that is caught in nets near the shore, and then salted for exportation.

The principal city is Cagliari with 60.000 inhabitants. There is a certain amount of movement in the port, not more than 420.000 tons of goods annually. The city is remarkable for the beauty of its situation, and its handsome buildings, wide streets and squares; there is an university, but not complete in all the branches of study, and a most important museum, rich in Phoenician antiquities.

Another place, the chief town of the province, is Sassari (43.000 inhabitants); that is

situated inland, and put into communication with the sea by a railway for the Gulf of Aranci. Sassari is also seat of an University, with an excellent musical Academy.

The smaller towns are, Iglesias, the greatest mining centre; Oristano, the ancient capital of the *Giudicato d'Arborea* in the Middle Ages; Alghero, on a promontory overhanging the sea, is famed for its fisheries and for its superior agricultural products, especially wine and olive oil, with a few industries; Nuoro, where cattle breeding is carried out on a large scale, and much trade done in wool.

THE NEW LANDS OF ITALY

The new lands which Italian valour has now redeemed from servitude may be grouped in three sections: the Trentino with the Upper Adige; the Venezia Giulia, and the coast of Dalmatia.

The Trentino and the Upper Adige.

The *fateful triangle* which Austria occupied between the crests of the Alps and the Lake of Garda may be divided into two parts;

the Trentino proper and the more northerly region which includes the upper valley of the Adige and of its affluent the Isargo. The Italians call it the *Upper Adige*, the name which was given to it by Napoleon I, while the Germans, falsifying geography and history, give it the lying name of *Southern Tyrol*.

The two regions are both geographically Italian, but in the Trentino the entire population is Italian and speaks only Italian: in the Upper Adige instead through infiltration of Germans, who have come down from the Brenner, and through the assiduous work of the Austrian Government and of pangerman societies which labour busily, the country has a German colouring. The ancient clearly Italian names were given a German disguise: for example, Bressanone became Brixen; Bolzano became Botzen; even the river Adige became the Etsch.

The Government, manipulating statistics artificially, on a population of 250.000 inhabitants, spread over 7200 sq. km. of territory on the Upper Adige, only admitted the existence of 16.000 Italians; while calcu-

lations made by impartial persons who know the country prove that this number must be at least tripled in order to reach the truth, and that the number of the population who speak German must be diminished in proportion. In addition many for fear of the Government spoke German although they were of Italian origin.

The country is extremely mountainous; the population very scattered; only in some valleys is it grouped together. The principal wealth is agriculture; industries are rare; the wood business is prosperous.

The principal city of the Upper Adige is Bolzano with only 25.000 inhabitants; it is entirely of the type of the Venetian cities; Meran with 20.000 inhabitants is also just like the cities of the Venetian provinces. Bressanone is a small inhabited centre with hardly more than six thousand inhabitants.

The Trentino, properly so-called, has a surface of only 6350 sq. km. and contains about 400.000 inhabitants. It includes five distinct parts:

1. The middle basin of the Adige with its principal affluents the Noce, the Avisio,

the Fersina and the Leno. These form five valleys, closed in by mountains, which take the name of Val Lagarina (Adige), Val Vermiglio and Val di Sole (Noce), Val Cembra and Val Fiemme (Avisio), Val Fersina and Val Calamento (Fersina), Vallarsa (Leno).

2. The upper valley of the Brenta, which river has its source in the little lake of Caldonazzo, flows through the Val Sugana and then enters the ancient confines of the Kingdom of Italy at Primolano Gorge.

3. The region of the upper and lower Cismon, close to the venetian region of Bellunese and Agordo, with San Martino di Castrozza and Fiera di Primiero, delicious summer resorts.

4. The upper valley of the river Oglio (Sarca) with the more northerly tract of the Lake of Garda, on which stands the beautiful city of Riva.

5. The upper valley of the River Chiese (Val Giudicaria) and of its affluents until its outlet in the Lake of Idro.

The principal city of this region is Trent, an ancient Roman colony, afterwards the chief town of a bishopric, which for many

centuries preserved its independence from any political authority and was a sovereign principality. It then fell into the hands of the House of Austria; was joined to the kingdom of Italy by Napoleon I, fell again under the power of Austria in 1815, escaped from it in 1848; then once again fell into its hands.

The city has, or had 33.000 inhabitants; it has some small industries, but none of great importance; its principal riches are agricultural, since it exports wine, fruit and vegetables. It has magnificent monuments; the Cathedral, the construction of which goes back to 1100, and the Castle, named Buon Consiglio, an ancient mediæval fortress. There Austria until the very last days imprisoned Italian patriots; in the courtyard of that gloomy Castle the natives of Trent who became prisoners of Austria while fighting in the ranks of the Italian army went to their death. The church of Santa Maria, where the famous *Council* took place which was to have put an end to the religious struggle between catholics and protestants in the XVI century, is also noteworthy as an historical memento.

At Trent, as a protest against the German efforts to denationalize the country, by the unanimous wish of all the citizens a great monument arose to Dante Alighieri; the greatest Italian poet. The political significance of this statue, which, turning its back to the mountains, looks towards the ancient Italian frontier, has been understood by all: and the common idea has been magnificently expressed by the poet of the new Italy, Giosue Carducci, in the verses:

Dante si spazia da ben cinquecento
anni de l'Alpi sul tremendo spalto
ed or s'è fermo, e par che aspetti, a Trento.

"For five hundred years Dante has dominated the terrible plateau of the Alps; now he has stopped, and seems to wait, at Trent."

Trent is a city which is rich in secondary schools, and one of the Italian cities in which it may be said that there are no illiterates. This is true of the whole Trentino, since in order to keep alive the national language, notwithstanding the repeated and assiduous German efforts to crush it, the *National League* has maintained numerous

schools in the cities, in the country, and on the mountains, in opposition to the German schools.

On the Adige, further down the valley, are Rovereto and Ala, both Roman cities, small but wealthy commercially.

In the Val Sugana, which is rich in thermal springs, in electrical works, in agricultural products, the health resorts of Levico and Roncagno are not to be forgotten, or the little city of Borgo, and the whole valley of the Tesino, dotted with charming villas and hotels.

In the Val d'Avisio Cavalese has some importance; in Val di Non, Cles and Malè, in the Giudicaria, Tione, Stenico, Storo, Condino, Cafaro, where the campaign of Garibaldi in 1866 took place. On the Lake of Garda is Riva and further to the north Arco.

In the region of the Trentino, rich in water and electrical works, in these last years the textile industry has developed; and its copper mines, although not very profitable, must not be forgotten.

In the Arts, in Literature and in Science the Trentino has given to the world many

illustrious men: the architect Vittoria, the painter Segantini, the poet Giovanni Prati, the great philosopher Rosmini, the writer Tartarotti and the great tragic actor, Gustave Modena. But above all the Trentino is the land of patriotism, of devotion to the great Mother Italy. For Her hundreds of brave men died fighting in the ranks of the Piedmontese, afterwards the Italian army, and among the Garibaldian volunteers; for Her, many splendid youths risked prison, exile and death, whose spirits to-day exult with ours seeing their great dream accomplished.

Julian Venetia.

By this Roman name is understood all that region which from the ancient eastern frontier of the kingdom of Italy reaches as far as the chain of the Julian Alps, which descend to the sea to the east of Fiume.

This region is divided into three distinct parts; Eastern Friuli, Trieste, and Istria with Fiume.

Eastern Fiuli is the natural continuation of that part of Friuli which belonged to the

kingdom of Italy. The political frontier, as we have already said elsewhere, marked in 1866 and imposed upon Italy, had no geographical or historical foundation; it was arbitrarily marked by Austria, cutting in half in some points a field, a forest or a group of houses!

It extends over about 50.000 square kilometers and has a population of 260.000 inhabitants. The official statistics, compiled in the usual way by the Austrian Government, assign threefifths of them to the various Slav races and only twofifths to the Italian race. It would appear that statistics made with justice and honesty would invert this proportion. The Slav groups chiefly live in the more mountainous parts, on the edge of the district; the plains and cities are clearly Italian, and were even more so before the propaganda made by Panslav societies had exercised, with the consent and assistance of the Austrian Government, a large amount of pressure.

The region includes the course of the Isonzo and of its few affluents which flow down the western slopes of the Julian Alps to

while from the opposite slopes descend the Drava and the Sava, which empty themselves into the Danube. These mountains are the *Gates of Italy*: the Plezzo Pass is called the *Key of Italy*, and the names of the places, under the Slav varnish which appears in the geographical maps edited by the Austrian Government, reveal their clearly Italian origin.

The Venetian domination, which was exercised over this province largely if not continuously, adds historical to geographical rights.

The most important centre is Gorizia, the ancient capital of a flourishing county long disputed between Venice and the House of Austria. Before the war, which has greatly depopulated it, Gorizia contained about 32.000 inhabitants; it was a rich city with flourishing industries and in a delightful position. More to the east is Gradisca, a small city which the war has greatly injured; Monfalcone stands upon the sea, a harbour of a certain importance with naval dockyards and a small arsenal; and nearby is the Castle of Duino, most ancient and once rich with precious historical memories. On the lagoon to the west of Monfalcone is Aquileia, the

great old Roman city which the barbarians destroyed, and which later gave its name to an ecclesiastical Patriarchy, which made itself much talked about for its power during all the Middle Ages. On the ruins of Aquileia a little city has arisen, which guards the numerous monumental remains of the past. Close by, also upon the lagoon, is Grado, once a station of the Roman fleet, now a small port, to which the war has given new life.

In the northern part of Eastern Friuli is to be found Caporetto, of unhappy memory; Tolmino, Cormons and Plezzo, all spots sacred to Italy, which have squandered their noblest blood during the present war; while to the south of Gorizia is the squalid land of the Carso, savage and sterile.

The country in its economic aspect may be divided into three parts: to the north it is covered with woods, which form its only wealth. The flat part in the centre is rich in agricultural products and especially wine; the Carso is unproductive, barren and in certain parts near the sea unhealthy, covered with lagoons (the lagoons of Grado) which would, however, be capable of being reclaimed.

In Gradisca and Monfalcone various local industries flourished; in the region of Idria, near the chain of the Julian Alps, there are mines, especially of mercury.

The region of Venezia Giulia includes also Trieste and Istria. It has an area of 6500 sq. kil. and a population which may be calculated at 700,000 inhabitants.

Trieste is a superlatively Italian city, of Roman origin, which passed later into the possession of Venice, then became a free city, fell once again under the power of Venice and then in consequence of commercial rivalry and intolerance of the Venetian absolutism passed into the hands of Austria, from whom however on several occasions Venice succeeded in taking it. It is, as has been already said, one of the principal ports of the Mediterranean, most important for its commerce with Central Europe, the point of departure for many lines of navigation with the East, with arsenals and dockyards in the neighbouring valley of Muggia, and deposits of all kinds, in fact all that is needed for a great modern port.

Its population was calculated before the

war at about 230,000 inhabitants, of whom at least 180,000 were Italian in language, sentiment and education. The rest consist of numerous German employés, living there for their work, and of a nucleous of Slavs coming from every part of the Austrian monarchy and established in Trieste by favour of the Government in order to try and take from the city its national character.

The principal monuments of the city are the very ancient cathedral of San Giusto, erected on the height which dominates the gulf, on the remains of a Roman temple, the arch called Riccardo, the Castle, and among the more modern are the Stock Exchange and the palace of the Lieutenant. But the most noteworthy are the quays and the Port.

Trieste is a city in which elementary and secondary instruction is most accurate, because in opposition to the schools of the Austrian Government, in which the teaching of German was obligatory, the Commune maintained at its own expense secondary, training, industrial and commercial schools with entirely Italian teachers. It is well known that for political reasons the Austrian

Government always refused to set up an University at Trieste, in order to oblige students to go to Vienna or some other German university, but the youthful patriots preferred to emigrate to Italy. Trieste has also a fine communal library, a museum of Fine Arts and other educational institutions.

With regard to its port the statistics of 1913 show a movement of merchandise of 11 millions of tons of a value calculated at two milliards and a half of lire.

Behind Trieste rises the mountainous region on which stands the enchanting suburb of Opcina, today in great measure inhabited by Slavs. In its neighbourhood are the famous grottoes of the Carso, celebrated for their stalactites and the subterranean streams and lakes, among them that of Postumia which the Germans have wrongly rebaptised by the name of Adelsberg.

To the east of Trieste and immediately after the valley of Muggia, Istria begins, a triangular peninsula, which ends with Cape Promontore to the south and reaches as far as the east of Fiume.

It is a steep and mountainous region, but

having a coast rich with ports and islands. In the interior it is inhabited chiefly by Slavs, called there in part by the Venetian Republic, which for nine centuries owned the peninsula, in order to repopulate it after repeated outbreaks of plague and other illnesses. Instead, on the coast is to be found a thoroughly Italian population, warmly supporting its ancient Italian sentiment.

Here also the usual artifices have been tried in order to deceive strangers, and the official statistics on 350.000 inhabitants assign only half to the Italians; the rest are divided between Slovenes, Serbo-croats, Rumenians and other races. It is however easy to demonstrate that these statistics are marked by a great pessimism with regard to all that could favour the rights of the Italians and by a no less great optimism for the cause of the Slavs.

Threequarters of Istria is cultivated; in the mountains forests abound, whence in the past the Venetian Republic obtained the wood for its navy. There are also abundant pastures which constitute one of the riches of the region. The lower part is cultivated with grain, vines and olives,

Mines are not wanting, among them several of coal. The stone of Istria is famous and was used for the construction of the most beautiful Venetian palaces. The saline springs of Pirano, and Capo d'Istria are also important.

Among the cities on the coast Capo d'Istria, with 12.000 inhabitants, preserves the signs of Venetian domination. It was the birth-place of distinguished writers and artists and gave to Venice five doges. Pirano (8000 inhabitants) where the great musician Tartini was born, is one of the most picturesque cities of the peninsula; Parenzo keeps many Roman memories and contains the majestic temple of Sant'Eufrasio; Rovigno (12.000 inhabitants) stands upon a promontory which rises above a territory still infested by malaria; and finally, the very strong city of Pola, with the neighbouring island of the Brioni is divided into two parts, the old Roman and Venetian city, and the new town, all military and naval with its arsenal, barracks and war factories.

On the eastern coast of Istria, more to the north, is Albona, also a Roman city but si-

situated rather inland and on a height; its port is Rabaz.

In the interior of the island the only important inhabited centre is Pisino, also an Italian city, although the Germans in their maps and official documents have given it the name of Mittelburg. It has only 4000 inhabitants, but is administratively important.

Below the Quarnaro is to be found the port of Voloska with the neighbouring village of Abbazia, which has become in late years a very elegant and much frequented health resort, with villas, hotels, theatres and places of amusement.

The islands of Veglia, Cherso, Lussin Grande and Lussin Piccolo all belong geographically to Istria and are situated in the gulf of the Quarnaro, having good and safe harbours.

Fiume, which is situated on the eastern shore of the Gulf of Quarnaro, also belongs to Istria. It was always considered to be a part of Istria and was only united to Hungary in the XVIII century, from that time onwards being considered an Hungarian port, but it is a city in which the majority of the

population is Italian in sentiments, language and traditions, as has been demonstrated even recently, notwithstanding the violence exercised against it.

The population is (or was before the War) composed of 30.000 Italians and of about 21.000 non-Italians, of whom perhaps 15.000 belong to the various Slav races and 6000 are Magyars. Historically it never belonged to Venice except for a short time, but was a fief of the patriarchy of Aquileia. The Slavs have called it Ricka, but the name is only used in official documents.

The public administration is in the hands of the majority, which is Italian, and in its proclamations, and in all public documents makes use of the Italian language, maintains Italian schools, and has always resisted energetically all the Slav efforts to trample upon it. It is a characteristic fact that when in 1848 elections were held for a deputy to the Slav Diet of Zagabria, among 840 voters were found 840 voting papers with the word "No one," and when the elections were renewed all the voting papers contained a protest against the attempted annexation to Croatia,

Fiume opposed a similar resistance to efforts to make her Magyar. Fiume has great commercial importance, its port, before the war, was much frequented; it had shipping companies that owned numerous boats.

Dalmatia.

By Dalmatia is understood the territory which from the island of Arbe goes as far as the Montenegrin naval port of Antivari, running parallel to the Italian coast in a south-easterly direction. It has behind it Bosnia, Herzegovina, and Montenegro and consists of a narrow strip of land between the mountains and the sea, with numerous islands near the coast.

It has an extension of about 20,000 sq. kils. of which something like 2400 constitute the islands. Its importance in war is immense because of its numerous ports which can receive even large ships, and the infinite number of canals between the islands, and between the islands and the land, which constitute a magnificent defence and at the same time a terrible instrument of offence against the Italian coast.

A first tract goes as far as the line of Croatia with the ports of Segna and Carlopago, which are in front of the islands of Arbe, Pago and of the lesser Puntadura, Selve, Ulbo and Melada.

To the south of the Island of Pago begins the Dalmatian coast properly so called, which is also flanked by islands. There we find first the great bay of Novegradi and then, looking towards Italy, on a small peninsula, the very important harbour of Zara. More to the south again is the magnificent bay of Sebenico, the starting point of a railway which crosses the Dinaric Alps and comes out in Bosnia, connected on the other side with Spalato. The principal island on the coast is Lunga or Grossa.

A third group consists of the islands of Bua, Brazza, Lesina, Curzola, Lagosta and Lissa, lying in front of the coast on which Spalato, Almissa and Macarsca are to be found. This tract ends with the peninsula of Sabbioncello, which closes a deep channel into which runs the principal river of Dalmatia, the Narenta. The principal city at a short distance from the coast is Metcovich.

The last tract of the Dalmatian coast has not many islands along it; the port of Ragusa opens upon it and then the magnificent Bay of Cattaro, which is one of the best furnished, the most convenient and the safest harbour of the whole Mediterranean.

Dalmatia remained united to Italy during the first centuries of the Middle Ages, even after the fall of the Empire, and the traces of Rome remained profoundly marked upon her, which no force or external violence succeeded in obliterating when the barbarous Slav hordes of Croats and Serbs rushed down the Dinaric Alps. Venice impressed yet another Italian seal on this territory, where she exercised a complete domination over the coast and the larger islands from the XI century until the end of the XVIII century; when the Treaty of Campoformio ceded to Austria all or almost all the hereditary spoils of the great Adriatic republic.

From the geographical point of view Dalmatia is poor, both as to agricultural and mineral products. The only really paying industry is that of carburo which is exercised at Sebenico by an Italian society. Other indus-

tries are the distilleries, Zara being celebrated for its maraschino.

The commerce is not great, but the Dalmatian mercantile marine is well developed; before the war there were about 90 steamers and a thousand sailing ships. These carry on the traffic between the islands and the coast and between the former and the Italian shore. The entire movement of merchandise was of about 10 millions of tons yearly, including however the transport.

The population, according to official data, is rather above 630.000 inhabitants, of whom according to the usual statistics the Italians number hardly twenty thousand, and the great majority are Serbo-Croats; but no one can have faith in the value of these statistics, compiled with a political object. An approximate calculation would give the Italians at 80.000 and would diminish in the same proportion the Slav element, in which the Croats predominate and after them the Serbs.

The principal town is Zara, the centre of Italian feeling, the beautiful Venetian city, with its cathedral containing famous works by Georgio Orsini, the great Dalmatian

artist. It has about 60.000 inhabitants, of whom the great majority are Italian. Spalato and Sebenico follow, one with 15.000, the other with 10 thousand inhabitants; both are celebrated for magnificent monuments. At Spalato the remains of the palace of the Emperor Diocletian are to be admired, and in the neighbouring Salona, there are ruined temples and monuments of that rich Roman city. Sebenico is perhaps the most beautiful and elegant city of Dalmatia; its Cathedral is a noteworthy monument of mediaeval art. At Sebenico the Italian philosopher and patriot Nicòlò Tommaseo was born.

Trau stands upon a little island, united to the mainland by a bridge and, like the neighbouring island of Bua, it has a delicious climate; it is the garden of Dalmatia. Its inhabitants are also enthusiastically Italian.

From Trau to Cattaro a long series of castles bear witness to the Venetian domination. Ragusa, with 6000 inhabitants stands upon an outlying tongue of land; it was once a Greek colony, then a republic, which for a long time was under the protection of Venice. It is a centre of Italian culture. Cat-

Cattaro has now only 3000 inhabitants, according to antiquated statistics; it is celebrated for its cathedral in Romanesque style and for the magnificent harbour, dominated however from the heights which until 1915 had been in the possession of Montenegro. In the islands of San Pietro is the port of Brazza; Lesina has an excellent merchant harbour with a Loggia of Sammichele; Lissa was once a Greek colony: outside the island was fought in 1866 the naval battle between the Italians and the Austrians in which the latter gained the victory; Curzola, with its fine port of Vallegrande and the inland city of Blatta (6000 inhabitants). Perasto in the lower part of the Gulf of Cattaro must not be forgotten a city which after the Treaty of Campoformio buried under an altar the banner of San Marco, while the head of the community pronounced words of love and devotion for Venice. To-day the banner of St Mark, after 121 years, once again waves on the coast of Dalmatia united to the Tricolour of new Italy.

COLONIAL ITALY

Italy acquired colonies only a few years ago. She came last among the great European Powers, who had already occupied the best positions and has been obliged to content herself with the regions or lands less favoured by Nature.

The Italian possessions on the African coast are three, namely, in the order of their acquirement, Eritrea, Somalia and Libya.

The Eritrean colony extends for more than a thousand kilometers along the coast of the Red Sea and goes back on the African mainland as far as Mareb. It has an extent of about 120.000 sq. kils. and its population is calculated at 300.000. It consists of an almost barren coast zone, which however is important for commerce, and of a fairly fertile and well cultivated high plateau. Its principal port is Massowah; more to the interior is Asmara, the residence of the Governor. The Eritrean colony was the theatre of terrible battles against the neighbouring

empire of Abyssinia, and its possession cost Italy much blood and money.

Somalia has three times the extension of Erythrea, but its population is about the same. It stretches from the Gulf of Aden along the coast of the Indian Ocean as far as the course of the Giuba, and includes the colony of Benadir with its chief town Mogadiscio and the protectorate of Northern Somalia, which has as its principal centre Alula, near Cape Guardafui. These territories have a certain agricultural and commercial importance and will have more in the future, if the coming international agreements assure to Italy a just compensation, also in Africa, for the really great work achieved by her against the common enemy.

More recent but also more important is the acquirement of Libya, on the shores of the Mediterranean, between Egypt (English) and Tunis (French). In consequence of the war, of which we shall give a brief account in the appendix, and which lasted from 1911 until 1913, Italy has conquered this vast region, the area of which has not yet been determined, because the

boundaries towards the south are not certain beyond the Tropic of Cancer. It has a population calculated at rather more than a million inhabitants, some of whom however are not yet entirely subjugated.

Libya is divided into two parts: Tripolitania, which is generally flat towards the coast and mountainous in the interior, and Cyrenaica, which, instead, is mountainous near the coast and becomes flatter towards the interior, which however, is very little known. Between Tripoli and Cyrenaica stretches the sandy and desert region of Sirtica, entirely without inhabitants except in a few internal oases. The chief town of Tripolitania is the city of Tripoli having a population of about 7000 and a good port; the chief town of Cyrenaica is Bengasi (about 30.000 inhabitants); but Derna has also military and commercial importance.

A BRIEF HISTORY OF ITALY

The history of Italy may be called the history of civilization, for the Italian peninsula has so frequently given birth to the principles and the ideas, which are to day the patrimony of the majority of civilized nations. In fact not only has the Latin race felt, and still feels more permanently and deeply, the effects of the Roman domination, but also the Eastern and Western races, coming into contact with Rome, absorbed more or less a large part of her civilization.

Even when over-run and devastated by barbarians in the middle ages, Italy was the forerunner of the other European nations in the renaissance of civilization, of the arts, literature, legislation and commerce, in almost every branch of human activity, and resumed her leading position as in Roman days. Italian influence has also made itself effecti-

vely felt in modern times. An English poet remembering all that civilization owes to Italy wrote:

Open my heart, and you shall see
Graven upon it: Italy.

Rome.

About eight centuries B. C., while powerful empires flourished in the Orient, and the light of culture glowed in Greece, sprang up on the banks of the Tiber a little group of huts inhabited by rustic shepherds: Rome.

Surrounded by Latins, Italians, and Etruscans, almost all hostile, the tiny settlement had to struggle for existence, but thanks to the warlike instincts of her inhabitants was able in about two hundred years, to subdue the neighbouring populations, and whilst appropriating to herself all that was good and useful from their higher level of civilization, extended the boundaries by their means.

Strong in mind and body endowed with solid virtues, men of action, born rulers of men, the Romans made their way not only by force of arms, but by their simple and practical institutions. Gifted with a strong

sense of justice, plain and frugal in their manner of life, full of high ideals of honour, respect to parental authority, political and military leaders, educated to venerate natural divinities, these agriculturists and soldiers were always ready to leave the plough and take up the sword. Their lucid legislation, rigid almost to cruelty; their social and political order, all exemplified the honesty and purity of their life and their high sense of discipline. After long and bitter struggles the principles of democracy, of the people's will, prevailed in their social and political life, and civil and political equality for all citizens was obtained almost contemporaneously with the establishment of the dominion of Rome amongst the surrounding population for about twenty miles from the Apennines to the sea. This domination was upheld with the institution of agrarian-military colonies, which became secondary centres and efficient instruments for fusing not only the Empire, but the Latin tongue, political institutions and rudimentary culture.

Having secured for herself the domination of the Lazio and neighbouring regions about

350 B. C., Rome moved resolutely towards the conquest of Italy, first turning towards the South, inhabited by proud mountaineers, whom it required fifty years of constant fighting to subdue.

During this period, Rome came into direct contact with Greek culture, for the southern coasts of the peninsula were inhabited by very rich and opulent Greek colonists flourishing in science, arts and commerce. Almost unconsciously, whilst fighting for and against them, the new agrarian and military colonies absorbed the germs of Greek civilization, and modified themselves accordingly.

The Roman Empire.

Little by little, a great part also of Central and Northern Italy fell under the dominion of Rome, and the older populations of alien race, with ever extending colonies and powerful resources, were quickly romanized.

Meanwhile, during the bitter and age-long struggle against the maritime republic of Carthage, not only the island of Sicily, but Sardinia, Corsica, part of the African littoral,

some regions of Spain, and some places in Southern France fell under Roman sway, and became more or less thoroughly romanized. Between the III and I century B.C., the inhabitants surrounding the Western Mediterranean also felt the iron hand of Rome, and discarding their primitive rudeness, adopted customs, laws, and in some places even the Roman language. Fine military roads were constructed over the Alps to reach the new conquests; military camps were transformed into towns, with monuments, aqueducts, theatres, baths, all on the pattern of the capital; the local magistrates were uniformly elected according to Roman customs; Roman laws were almost universally applied.

The work accomplished in the Orient, though different in form, was similar in results. Having conquered the Macedonian Kingdom, which was an Ally of Carthage, the Romans extended their conquests in the Hellenic peninsula, carrying booty to Rome, statues, pictures, artistic treasures of every description, together with thousands of slaves among whom were numerous literary men,

scientists and artists from that region, then at the zenith of its civilization.

The Roman people, still uncultivated and little appreciating that which did not treat of agriculture, war, or politics, unconsciously fell under the influence of the vanquished, and their artistic, scientific, and literary culture; but at the same time they lost the primitive simplicity and purity of their own customs through contact with the more lax and effeminate Oriental populations, and only a few social classes retained their original characteristics. The states of Western Asia in the Mediterranean, potentates and republics of Asia Minor, the Black Sea, Syria, the Mediterranean islands, following the example of Greece, invoked the protection of Rome, or were vanquished by force of arms.

Caesar conquered all (or almost) modern France and Belgium; crossed the Rhine and beat back the German tribes, and set foot for the first time in England. In the Orient the Roman eagles penetrated as far as the Euphrates and the Tigris; and in Africa the Roman dominion in Egypt was enlarged and consolidated.

Roman literature, partly imitated from the Greek, sparkled in all its splendour; poets, historians, orators, jurists produced immortal works, which still fill the world with admiration. Rome, and the countries under her sway, embellished themselves with magnificent buildings, basilicas, temples, baths and piazzas, adorned with priceless statues and pictures, the ruins of which excite veneration in the breast of every educated person. It was a proud boast to be a Roman citizen, that centre from whence irradiated the light of civilization.

During the two first centuries of the Empire, the power of immortal Rome continued to increase. Roman legions reached the Danube and the Rhine, and with their military camps helped to diffuse civilization and the Latin tongue. Trajan penetrated with a victorious army as far as the left bank of the Danube, and laid the foundations of the present day Roumania, which still preserves the influence in language and customs. All England, a part of Scotland, and the Irish coasts also felt the dominion and influence of Rome.

Internal causes however were weakening the vast Empire; renewed civil wars, increasing corruption of customs, a slackening of military and civil discipline, prevented her from being able to withstand the ceaseless attacks of barbarian hordes, which from the North and East pressed against her far-reaching frontiers. But before she fell to pieces, the work of civilization was matured, and even some of the customs, laws, and institutions of these barbarians had been modified. In fact, Rome infused in the majority of them the first germs of Roman civilization and respect for the majesty of Rome was manifested in all the political acts of the barbarian leaders.

Rome and Christianity.

Moreover, having became the centre of Christianity, by virtue of being the seat of the Primate or Pontiff of the Church, Rome exercised another and no less notable influence on all the Christian world, owing to the diffusion of the principles of the Gospel, the example of work given by certain monastic orders.

the preaching of the morality of Christ, and the ecclesiastical hierarchy. From the fusion of the two great elements, Roman and Christian, with the addition of the victorious barbarian invaders, who had in their turn been conquered, modern civilization sprang into birth from the ashes of the old.

Rome and Italy, though fallen from their high estate, bowed in slavery, and down trodden by barbarian feet, with their monuments shattered and the glory of the imperial purple faded, still appealed to the imagination and hearts of their invaders. Side by side with the Campidoglio and the triumphal arches of Republican and Imperial Rome, rose up the greatest Temple of Christendom, and the Apostle's basilicas. The language used by the Caesars was that adopted by the Christian ecclesiastics; the majesty of the Roman laws transpired in the canons of the Church; even intolerant monks, with their vandalistic fury against Paganism, could not entirely destroy that Latin literature, which had spread throughout the world from Rome, and which was bound on returning to the light, to rekindle the torch of culture.

The Middle Ages.

Invasion succeeded invasion; hordes of still wilder barbarians swarmed across the Alps, and from seas no longer Roman, flooded Italy, destroying, as the poet sings:

The Cross of Christ and the eagles of Rome.

All seemed swept away from Rome's world, the splendour of the arts and literature, her riches, flourishing commerce and every vestige of civilization; but beneath the ashes of desolation, the sacred spark still smouldered ready to burst into flame at the opportune moment. The only people, who retained some remnants of culture during this European deluge, were the Italians.

Under another form and with the protection of the Roman Church, Charlemagne attempted to renew the ancient Roman Empire, and at Rome he received the crown from the Pope's hands. It was to Rome that his Teutonic successors came to crave the ratification of their imperial authority. It was from Rome that the Popes dared to hurl anathemas against the most powerful sovereigns of the

world, and to depose even Emperors from their thrones. Pope Gregorius VII saw the Emperor Henry IV, whom he had excommunicated, grovel humbly at his feet.

About 1000 A. D. the Italian people, the first amongst European nations to reawake to a sense of their lost grandeur and liberty, began to initiate the struggle against feudalism. Little by little, breaking the chains which bound them to their oppressors, they constituted free Communes, which governed themselves autonomously under the form of Republics, whilst at the same time recognizing the Emperor's sway. The first Communes to throw off the yoke of the Byzantine Empire, were the maritime ones of Venice, Amalfi, Gaeta and Naples, and their independent galleys won fame and riches for themselves fighting the Saracens and trading in Western and Oriental ports. Pisa and Genoa followed; then the Northern cities of Italy, Milan, Brescia, Verona, Padua, Parma, Reggio, Bologna, and many others. The Guilds of Arts and Crafts, especially those in connection with the silk and woollen industries, attained a high degree of development; they took part

in public life with their *consuls*, assuming in many places the government and administration of the city. Democracy, the great moulding agency of our modern age, first evolved itself in Italy: after the Greek and Roman Republics the first manifestations of liberty and popular government sprang up in Italy.

Industries and commerce flourished first on Italian soil. The Italians borrowed many of their inventions from other nations, the Greeks and Arabs, but they modified and improved them and spread them throughout the world. The new culture of philosophy was first fostered by the Italians; they first resuscitated a new application of Roman Law; theirs were the first Universities, amongst the earliest of which were besides the School of Medicine of Salerno, Bologna, Padua, Naples, founded between the XII and XIII centuries; many of the professors in highest repute at the foreign Universities of Paris and Oxford were Italians.

The religious and communal movements, earlier here than in any other part of Europe, gave a great forward impulse to the Arts,

especially to architecture, which was notably manifested in different regions. In fact, whilst the Arabian-Norman style flourished in Sicily, in the North and Centre the Roman or Lombard style reared striking and peerless examples, unrivalled in Europe for grandeur and beauty of outline. Italy was ahead of every other nation in the renaissance of sculpture and painting. The primitive expressions of art that the barbaric Teutons had attempted, were succeeded by the pure lines of Nicolò Pisani and his son Giovanni, who enriched the Baptistry at Pisa and the cathedral of Siena with their masterpieces; and by the pictures which still glow with colour, of the Florentine Cimabue, the celebrated master of Giotto.

Giotto gave a strong impulse to pictorial art: the Basilica of Assisi, the chapel of the Scrovegni at Padua have no rivals in their purity of conception and freshness of tint; the possession by Italy of these masterpieces are the envy of all the world. He had many and great imitators and disciples, all Italian, whilst the attempts of other nations were still awkward, heavy and without any sense of colour.

But above all, it was in Literature that Italy reigned supreme; no other then known country could rival her. It is enough to consider that Dante Alighieri, the *divine* poet, was Italian: he occupies an eminent position in the world's literature, side by side with the ancient classics, Homer and Virgil, and whom no modern poet has ever equalled, let alone excelled. The whole civilized world recognizes in his sacred poem, that gem of beauty, the masterpiece of the new Era, the evident sign that Europe was emerging from the darkness of the Middle Ages and that a new cycle of civilization was commencing.

Dante was not the only prominent figure in modern literature; Francesco Petrarca, the gentle Tuscan poet who celebrated his love in sweetest verse, and Boccaccio, the polished prose-writer, are rightly considered the masters of many succeeding generations of English, French and German writers.

The Italians were also pioneers in exploration and travel. To the Venetian Marco Polo we owe the first detailed information on China, Japan, and the most Easterly parts of the old continent. The first attempt to

discover a route to India, round the south of Africa, was due to the Genoese brothers Vivaldi. They set out at the end of the XIII century, and were never heard of again, and may be considered the first martyrs amongst the world's explorers.

In initiating the Crusades the maritime towns of Italy took a leading part, making important conquests and rendering great services to the continental Crusaders.

This was a glorious epoch for the navies of the Italian republics. The Mediterranean could truly be then called an Italian lake. From Spain to the coasts of the Black Sea and Palestine, only the ships of Venice, Genoa, and Pisa plied the main, without rivals or hindrance, exchanging the rich commerce of the Orient with the agricultural products and industries of the West, while on the coasts of Northern Africa Italian merchants had established commercial centres and colonies of note.

The dialects of Italy were universally adopted and understood in the Orient, and even to-day we may find vestiges of the coats of arms of the victorious Republics, the glorious lion of St. Mark and Genoa's dragon.

Venice, especially after the IV Crusade in the XIII Century, was very powerful. Her Doge or Ruler bore the pompous title of "Lord of a fourth part of the Roman Empire." The city of the Lagoons had in her possession, not only Istria and Dalmatia, but portions of the coast of the Balcan peninsula, Durazzo, Valona, Corinth, Naples of Malvasia, Salonica, a great part of the islands of the Archipelago, Negroponte, and Candia, and later on Cyprus, part of the city of Constantinople, and some parts of the coast of Palestine. Her ships of war, or galleys, were masters of the Adriatic, the Ionian and Aegean seas; her merchant men alone carried trade to Alexandria in Egypt, to the ports of Cirenaica, Tripoli, Tunis and Morocco, while twice a year they ventured forth through the Straits of Gibraltar to the British and Flemish ports.

Not less important was Genoa, though internal quarrels and civil wars with her rival Pisa detracted from her power of action. Caffa and Schio were hers; on the coasts of the Crimea, in Asia Minor and Palestine, she had trading quarters, and for long she

too possessed Cyprus. Mistress of the two Rivieras, from Nice to the Gulf of Spezia, she held in her hands the trade with France, Spain and West Africa; whilst her men of war with their endless supply of highly trained seamen hired themselves out to other powers, fighting under the flags of the Emperors of the East, the Kings of France, England, and the Balcan states.

Little by little, however, other naval powers began to contend with the Italians; internal disorders and civil wars weakened Venice and Genoa, with the consequence that they lost many of their conquests; but the grand old sea dogs, such as Caffaro, Consul of the Genoese during the first Crusade, Henry Dandolo, Doge of Venice and Commander of the Naval expedition to Constantinople, Doria, the leader in the great battle of the Meloria against the Pisans, are still to-day magnificent examples of valour and ardour, marvels of military political science; the Navy of modern Italy keeps their memory green.

Other Italians, especially Tuscans and Lombards, established prosperous commercial

relations in France, England, Flanders and Spain; some were bankers and lent money to foreign States, receiving in exchange important rights and privileges.

According to tradition, we owe to Italian navigators and especially the sailors of Amalfi the perfection and practical adoption (if not the entire invention) of the naval compass, the application of the chart of the winds, the earliest pilots, and very probably the first navigation charts.

The Renaissance.

During the Middle Ages, all tangible idea of Italy as a nation seemed to have disappeared, lost in the chaos of petty jealousies between cities, and even families in the same town. It was only towards the end of the XIII century, that the conception of forming a nation, began to simmer in some elect minds. Dante was the first to show himself animated by sentiments of Italianism; Petrarch also in his verses invoked concord amongst the Italians, recalling the glories of Rome, showing the necessity for union.

The voice of these great spirits was not listened to, and was lost in the clash of arms: but when the already loosened bonds fell apart, which held Italy to the German Empire, the Peninsula broke up into a series of independent states, at first numerous, but decreasing in number, as the more powerful ones absorbed the smaller.

1. Thus there was the Duchy of Savoy, which included a great part of Piedmont;
2. the Duchy of Milan, embracing a part of Lombardy;
3. the Duchy of Mantova;
4. the City of Florence with nearly all Tuscany in her power;
5. the Papal States, comprising Romagna, the Marches, Umbria, and the Province of Rome; (some of these provinces detached themselves, constituting self-governing principalities);
6. the Kingdom of Naples, which included all the Southern part of the Peninsula;
7. the Kingdom of Sicily;
8. the Republic of Venice;
9. the Republics of Genoa, Siena and Lucca, besides numberless other small states.

Some of these states were ruled over by national princes; the Pope was nearly always an Italian; but Naples and Sicily passed from one foreign dynasty to another and sometimes, through inheritance, like Sardinia, actually became provinces of foreign states.

At the period when all the other great European nations, such as France, Spain etc., after overcoming great difficulties had succeeded in uniting themselves under their respective reigning dynasties, thus developing the principles of nationality which had been roused by the barbarian invasions, Italy was not in a condition to achieve this, owing to her internal jealousies and rivalries, which laid her open to foreign invasion, and kept her in servitude from the XV to the end of the XVIII century.

But, from the end of the XIV century and for a great part of the XV century, the Northern Italian states were independent, enjoying great prosperity, the fruit of the preceding centuries, and thanks to them, Italy reached the zenith of her civilization. The rulers of Milan, Ferrara, Mantova, Naples, some of

the Popes, the Republic of Venice, the House of Medici, which ruled over Tuscany, the lesser rulers in Umbria and the Marches, protected literature and art, and entrusted the construction and decoration of their villas, palaces, churches and votive chapels, to the most celebrated artists. Research was eagerly made in antique manuscripts, containing the works of long lost Greek and Roman writers; excavations were carried out to discover the remains of classic art, that had escaped destruction at the hands of the barbarians; good taste prevailed and spread from Italy to other countries.

During this epoch, Italy became the sacred temple of Art and Science, once more exacting the reverence and admiration of the world, not by the might of her army, but through knowledge and art. Strangers flocked to her cities to admire and study.

In the XV century, Lorenzo Ghiberti, Filippo Brunelleschi, Donatello, Andrea Verrocchio, Luca Della Robbia, in the XVI the divine Michelangelo Buonarroti and Benvenuto Cellini are the most celebrated sculptors, whom perhaps the world has seen

since the Greek age. The same may be said of the still larger number of painters and their countless masterpieces. The most famous names are Beato Angelico, Sandro Botticelli, Leonardo da Vinci, Pietro Perugino, Andrea Mantegna, Giorgione, Michelangelo, Raffaello Sanzio.

In architecture, Fra Giocondo of Verona, the Solari, father and son, Bramante, and Filarete enriched the country with harmonious buildings, still greatly admired to-day. In literature and science Italy also led the way amongst all civilized nations, producing works much imitated by foreigners, but never excelled.

Leonardo da Vinci has no equal in mathematical science: he has already been referred to above as a painter, and with Michelangelo is one of the most complex geniuses of that age.

But even greater are the writers of the first half of the XVI century; it is sufficient to recall two names that even foreigners of medium culture are familiar with. Lodovico Ariosto, the great poet, exponent of the age of chivalry and singer of Orlando, and Nic-

colò Machiavelli, historian and politician of penetrating intuition and a marvellous prose-writer.

A great commercial and economic prosperity corresponded with this artistic renaissance, when Italy had again become the central beacon-light of culture. Venice was the great emporium of the Mediterranean trade, Florence the great banking centre of Europe.

It is superfluous to mention that the greatest of geographical discoveries, which gave an entire continent to mankind, is due to an Italian. Who is not familiar with the name and fame of Christopher Columbus? Nor does it lessen his world renowned reputation, to remember that he set forth with only the idea of reaching the further shores of Asia, Japan and China, ignorant that a great, rich, and populous continent, with an age-long civilization in some parts, lay between the Atlantic and Pacific oceans. It was owing to his insistence and tenacity at all the courts of the Western nations, France, England, Portugal and Spain, and to his unshaken faith and energy that the expedition was initiated and carried out, to

the glory of Italy. Genoa, was the birthplace of this man with a *heart of bronze*, who, defying the unknown seas, which according to the superstition of the Middle Ages were infested with marine monsters, urged his unwilling companions on till the Bahamas, Cuba and San Domingo were reached.

It must not be forgotten, that Columbus was the first to divine, after his fourth voyage, that the land discovered by him was a great continent; posterity has reason to admire in him one of the greatest benefactors of the human race; America and Italy together pay homage to his memory.

Columbus, however, was not the only great Italian navigator of that age. Already other Genoese [had preceded Vasco di Gama, and explored the African coasts, which led to the discovery of the Cape of Good Hope, and the great sea-route to India. Also many other navigators, too often in the pay of foreign states, explored the seas and added to the geographical discoveries.

Giovanni Caboto, reputed of Venetian origin, was the first to touch the coast of Canada, and his son, Sebastian, in several

expeditions reached Labrador and the peninsula of Nova Scotia. It was the Florentine Amerigo Vespucci, who had the good fortune and honour to bestow his name on the continent discovered by Columbus. After having touched the coast of Brazil, when sailing under the Portuguese flag, Vespucci, in an account of the voyage he had accomplished, was the first to launch in public the hypothesis that the discovery, was not only that of a new country, but of a new world. His letter printed and published had a large circulation in the scientific world, and to a German geographer is due the proposal, that the new world should bear the name of the *land of Amerigo*, hence the name America.

This was a great injustice to Columbus, but all the same the glory is Italy's, that the name of an Italian should have been given to the continent, which one of her sons had been the first to discover.

Modern Times.

The riches, commercial prosperity, artistic and literary glories of Italy were not linked with military potency. Quarrelling amongst

themselves, the Italian states were opposed to the idea that any one of them should assume the control of the peninsula, and thus become head of Italy.

Against those who attempted to do this, the help of foreign arms was invoked; in 1492, the very year in which Columbus set out on his portentous voyage, the incursions of the foreigner began in the peninsula. French, Germans, Spaniards succeeded each other, clashed one against another, and in the struggle, not only Italian prosperity was upset, but also her liberty and independence.

During the years in which Italian talent flourished most, and Rome had become the glorious beacon of art and literature, irradiating a pure light throughout the world, the interlopers were contesting the spoils of conquest. The Spaniards remained masters, or rather the Spanish branch of the House of Austria. Independence and liberty disappeared in the larger part of the peninsula. The miserly foreign government, neglecting the country's interest, concerned itself only with extorting money to enrich its own soldiers and employés.

Commerce, industry, education all declined, roads were not made, schools neglected; thus Italy, once so rich, lost her leading position and became poor, some of her inhabitants descending to a very low level of culture.

But even during these centuries of bondage the country retained some vestiges of her ancient glory. Two states had remained independent, the Duchy of Savoy and the Republic of Venice; both kept alive the recollections of former triumphs and evinced signs of firmness and valour.

Under the skilful guidance of Emanuel Philibert and his son Charles Emanuel I, the little Piedmontese state consolidated itself, spread, and became powerful through the strength of its army and ability of its diplomats, made itself respected by Spain and France, strongly defending its rights.

The Italians crushed by oppression began to look to the House of Savoy, hoping that from thence would come their deliverance. Venice too, although impoverished through the decay of her commerce, strenuously defended her Mediterranean Colonies against the potency of the Turkish Empire.

At Lepanto (1571), in conjunction with Spain, the Venetian navy won a great victory over the Unbelievers, and her sailors covered themselves with glory. Later in the xvii century, she defended for nearly thirty years her possessions in Candia against the Turks, and gained many naval battles, repeatedly destroying the Mussulman squadrons.

During this period, the last half of the xvii century and the first half of the following one, Italy gave a notable contribution to the world in art and literature,

One need only mention Tasso's poem entitled *Jerusalem freed*. When a nation produces masterpieces of painting, such as those by Titian, Tintoretto, and Veronese, and marvels in architecture and sculpture like those by Vignola, Palladio, Vittoria, Sansovino and many others, when she can contemporaneously boast of such masters of the brush, as Domenichino, Guercino, Guido Reni, Salvador Rosa, Lorenzo Bernini, such a nation cannot be called dead, even if her knee is bowed under the stranger's yoke. Italy's intellectual life still speaks in her palaces, churches, fountains, arcades and

monuments that win the admiration of all, and are the envy of strangers. The pictures dispersed amongst the European galleries, or sold for their weight in gold to collectors from over-seas, the countless literary works, poems, histories, philosophic and erudite works that our libraries preserve, are all a living witness to her ancient worth.

But the greatest figure, in that age of oppression and subjection, is that of Galileo Galilei, the great scientist, the true forerunner of modern science, founded on observation and experience. Fighting against superstition and ignorance, he succeeded in triumphantly launching the new theory, which established the sun as the centre of the planetary system. He suffered persecution and imprisonment for his scientific propaganda, but opened the *way of the firmament* as the great poet, Ugo Foscolo, said, to all posterity's astronomers and geographers.

The Re-awakening.

Italy began to awake politically in the XVIII century. Ideas of liberty, equality and poli-

tical independence made way, though haltingly and with much difficulty.

The House of Savoy became yet greater, obtained Sardinia and the royal title as a reward for her share in great European wars, still further amplified her dominion in Piedmont, was feared and respected by all the great European powers, and through wise diplomacy extracted continual advantages from them. The king of Sardinia, the only Italian ruler possessing a trained and valiant army, made himself both esteemed and feared.

Meanwhile the power of Spain collapsed, and to the foreign domination in Naples and Sicily succeeded a dynasty which, in spite of being of foreign origin, had a tendency to become national. In Lombardy, the Austrian dominion took the place of the hated Spanish government and tried to partially repair the great damage caused by the previous bad administration.

Through the infiltration of new ideas, which Italian and foreign philosophy gave great weight to, the people began, as it were, to awake from a long sleep and to grasp that

they possessed rights, that their rulers could not capriciously dispose of their property, life or liberty. It is Italy's pride to have produced during that period a succession of thinkers and writers, who in politics, legislation and public economy, bravely expressed their ideas and through their writings opened the way to the triumph of liberal sentiment. It is also her boast to have had ministers and rulers who took precedence of other European countries in wise administrative reform, and dared to fight against superstition and the tyranny of the priesthood.

In literature too, Italy produced during that time the greatest of tragedians, Vittorio Alfieri, one of the most genial writers of comedy, Carlo Goldoni, one of the best satirists, Giuseppe Parini. She also possessed unrivalled masters in mathematical science, like Lagrange, of Turin, and the astronomer Piazzi; famous naturalists, such as Lazzaro Spallanzani, Giovanni Galvani and Alessandro Volta, the forerunners of all other investigators in the discovery of electricity, who gave a tremendous impetus to physical science.

Italy and the French Revolution.

When the French Revolution broke out in 1789, striking the last blow at feudalism, and laying the foundations of Liberty, Italy was one of the first, amongst the European nations, to feel its benificent effects.

The idea of nationalism, buried beneath an accumulation of prejudice and previous errors, had already begun to make way, when France with her armies tore down the throne of autocrats and constituted herself the armed champion of broad, liberal and humanitarian principles.

Some of the most cultured and better prepared populations responded to the call of France; democratic states were formed, antique administrative systems discarded, and simultaneously strenuous battles were fought to overthrow Austria, who dominated the peninsula. In these battles the French tricolour often flew side by side with the Italian tricolour, that flag chosen in those days for a small fraction of the Italian nation, but which later on was to become the emblem of United Italy.

But a great iniquity and a grave political error were now committed. The French, after having liberated a great part of Lombardy from the Austrians, then penetrated into the territory of the Venetian republic, and there fought several battles against Austria. In 1797, however, they drew up with this Power a treaty of peace, by which, in ex-change for Lombardy, Venice with a large part of Venetian territory in Italy, all her possessions in the Adriatic, viz., Istria and the Dalmatian coast, were ceded to Austria.

This was the treaty of Campoformio, which gave the dominion of the Adriatic to Austria, obliging the population of Venetia, Istria and Dalmatia to submit to the stranger's yoke, a bondage that has only terminated to-day thanks to the triumph of the Italian and Allied forces.

This was not the only mistake committed during those revolutionary years. The French treated as enemies the less educated and intelligent classes, overburdening the country with taxes and not respecting their religious faith. Riots and revolts broke out, which,

fostered by the offended national pride, rendered precarious the French military occupation. The first military defeats inflicted by Austria and her confederates in 1799 caused all the republics created by France and protected by her to miserably collapse, and unhappy Italy was again engulfed in a most blind and fanatical reaction. In 1800 Napoleon Bonaparte, having become the head of the French Government, in a memorable campaign expelled the Austrians anew from Italy, (with the exception of the Veneto, which remained in subjection a few years longer), and established a series of states in the peninsula, some under the direct protectorate of France, others independent in theory, but not in practice.

The Napoleonic Era.

It is impossible in this short treatise to describe all the changes and transformations which Italy underwent during the Napoleonic era (1800-1814).

It is sufficient to remember that this great soldier united Piedmont and Genoa to

France, and instituted first an *Italian Republic* and then a *Kingdom of Italy*, of which he himself assumed the crown, whilst remaining Emperor of the French; but it was an Italy greatly reduced, comprising only Lombardy, Emilia with Romagna, and later on the Veneto.

In Central Italy he occupied Tuscany, instituting there a state for one of his sisters. He expelled the Pope from Rome, and added this city to the French Empire. He drove away the Bourbons from Naples, and put on the throne his brother-in-law, Murat, who however had not a free hand; thus one cannot consider that any part of the Italian peninsula enjoyed real independence. All the same the work which Napoleon I carried out, was valuable under certain aspects as a preparation for future events.

He it was in fact who germinated in the Italian heart the hope of seeing Italy united and free; unconsciously reinforced that idea of Unity which had been the ambition and desire of a few chosen spirits; his Government, inspired with liberal principles and founded on popular suffrage, contributed greatly to

the propaganda of those liberal ideas that the great French and Italian writers had so warmly upheld, but which had yet to permeate the consciousness of the uneducated masses.

It is only just too to record, that Italy is indebted to Napoleon for other and not inconsiderable benefits. He introduced into Italy the Napoleonic Code, which in itself embodies many liberal principles. He set on foot great public works; roads across the Alps, fortifications and harbour works. Under his rule the last vestiges of feudalism disappeared, especially in the Neapolitan region. Elementary and secondary public schools were opened in every province. The Universities were enriched with new knowledge. Administration was carefully carried out, and accurately regulated.

But above all we must note that Italy, as in days of yore, once more took her place as a warlike nation. The Kingdoms of Italy and Naples had each their own army, which side by side with the French legions fought on all the battlefields of Europe, covering themselves with glory and emulating the most famous regiments of the Emperor, in

courage and military ability. This military success, even though won under a flag not their own, gave to the Italians a sentiment of righteous pride and confidence in themselves, which was of great value in the subsequent struggle for liberty.

The Napoleonic Government was of brief duration, because the Emperor, drawn by circumstances into a continuous war against the English and their allies who eventually conquered him, dragged down with him in his ruin the Italian States which he had founded.

Vain were the efforts of the young Kingdom of Italy to have her independence recognized; fruitless the attempts of Gioacchino Murat, king of Naples, to urge all the Italians into a war for their national independence.

The powers allied against Napoleon, especially Austria, eternal enemy of Italy, deceiving the people with lying proclamations, suffocated every generous national effort, and by force of arms destroyed and cancelled all the political arrangements of Napoleon, replacing on the throne the majority of the former sovereigns, who lost no time in re-

establishing all the old absolutism, abolishing all liberal laws and annulling all those advantages which the Italians had obtained up to that time.

At the Congress of Vienna, in which the representatives of the conquerors of Napoleon took part, the chains of servitude were riveted anew on Italy, and she was divided into the following States:

I. *The Kingdom of Sardinia*, belonging to the House of Savoy, and including, besides Sardinia, Piedmont with Savoy and the ancient Republic of Genoa.

II. The Kingdom of Lombardy and Venetia, consisting of Lombardy, Mantua, and all the Veneto, excluding however the possessions of the ancient republic on the other side of the Adriatic. Austria appropriated this State to herself, against all right and justice; and whilst promising many advantages to the population, instead governed with terror and despotism, exploiting the riches of the country to her own advantage.

III. IV. The two Duchies of Parma and Piacenza and Modena, both under the direct or indirect influence of Austria.



Italy before the wars for Unity and Independence
(1859 - 1860 - 1866 - 1870)

V. The Granduchy of Tuscany, nominally independent, but in reality governed by a sovereign of the House of Austria, and subject to the wishes of the emperor, his kinsman.

VI. The Papal State, including Rome and her territory with the Marches, Romagna, Bologna and Ferrara.

VII. The Kingdom of the *Two Sicilies*, comprising all the Neapolitan region and Sicily. The ruler of this State was also related to the House of Austria, and faithfully carried out his orders.

Thus it may well be said that Italy was almost wholly handed over, bound hand and foot, to Austria with power to work her wicked will.

AUSTRIA AND ITALY.

These were the results of that infamous Congress of Vienna, acclaimed as a masterpiece of diplomacy. All the history of New Italy, from 1815 till present times, can be summed up in the attempts made by the people to break that iniquitous treaty, and to expel Austria from the peninsula and restore liberty and independence to Italy.

Only to-day, after the present war of liberation, has the last page of the Congress of Vienna been torn up.

Absolute mistress of the Adriatic (which had now become an Austrian lake), proprietor of a great part of northern Italy, related to and allied with the rulers of most of the other Italian states, Austria could illude herself to have effectively the control of all Italy, throughout whose extent she was served by a widely extended and intricate system of espionage, in order to compress and destroy every manifestation of liberal and patriotic sentiment. But in vain, the oppressed people, undaunted by threats and violence, undismayed by Austrian cruelty, the horrible cells of the Spielberg prison, the scaffold, the political persecutions of the Austrian Emperor's secret police, defended their precious patrimony of Italian nationality and language.

Long is the list of the attempts made to liberate Italy from her Austrian oppressors; to eject them from the country they only occupied through the right of force and diplomatic cunning; and longer still is the

roll-call of the glorious martyrs, who paid for the crime of loving their country and desiring her Liberty, on the scaffold, or in the infamous Austrian dungeons, tortured by hunger and floggings. Even today, Austria, who has never changed her methods and system of Government, imagined she could suffocate the voice of her Italian population in the Trentino and Istria, by imprisoning in horrible concentration camps all suspected individuals, imposing a system of terror, extorting by means of threats, valueless and lying declarations of fidelity to the Austrian sovereign.

Years of deep depression and discouragement ensued, but Austria was soon to learn, that instead of, as she hoped, uprooting and destroying all patriotic sentiments they were only strengthened, and that all Italy was to rise against her.

GIUSEPPE MAZZINI.

In 1831, Italian liberals in many of the Central provinces, falsely buoyed up by promises of moral and political assistance from the new French King Louis Philip, initiated other

attempts to free themselves from their rulers. But Austria, with her mailed fist and astute diplomacy, was again too much for them. Many liberals, such as Ciro Menotti, paid for their patriotism with their lives, while others had to flee into exile and found a secure welcome in the free countries of Europe, especially France, England and Switzerland, and the United States with South America. Some chose to fight in Spain and Portugal for the liberty of those countries, being unable to do so for their own.

At this time there arose in Italy a young genius, whose name not only Italy, but every Democracy honours as the greatest, most indefatigable and powerful apostle in the cause of Justice, Liberty and the Rights of the People, Giuseppe Mazzini.

In the name of this Right, for which to-day the allied Nations have stepped into the field against brute force, he summoned all the youth of Italy to resist the invader and his tyranny.

Persecuted by the police for his impassioned and fervid writings, he fled to France, where he founded the Society of "Young

Italy"; then, banished by the Government of Louis Philip, he sought a refuge in Switzerland and then in England, maintaining however an ever active correspondence with his companions of the faith, conspiring against autocratic Governments, spurring on the youth of his day with words and example to rebellion and the sacrifice even unto death for the sacred cause. His motto was "God and the People," to which he added later on "Thought and action."

Amongst the first supporters of Young Italy was Giuseppe Garibaldi, that heroic figure who was to fascinate all the youth of his time and perform such miracles of audacity and military valour, filling the world with admiration for his prodigious acts, and earning for himself the title of the "Knight of Humanity."

From 1832-46, young Italy was very active, although with but little effect; the greater number of her adherents perishing, yet not in vain, for the persecutions and blood shed in the cause of Liberty and Independence showed up the Austrian despotism in the most odious light, not only to Italy but to all the world.

"Martyrdom is never sterile" Mazzini himself said, commemorating the death of faithful followers, the brothers Bandiera, shot in Calabria, with the cry of "Viva Italia!" on their lips after a fruitless attempt to dislodge the Bourbon oppressors.

The glorious sparks kindled on the graves of these heroes, was to light the torch for Italy's soul to illuminate the path of progress and salvation. Here, as in many of his utterances, Mazzini was prophetic; popular education, at first neglected and inert, rapidly developed, public consciousness grasped more and more the ineffable boon of independence, worth of the precious gift of Liberty, realizing that to achieve it the hard school of adversity and martyrdom must surely be passed, threats and dangers defied, and that as their poet sang they must arm themselves with *iron and wrath*.

HERALDS OF FREEDOM.

Many Italians, though differing from Mazzini's political ideas, ways and means, were willing to contribute to the great work of pre-

paration for their country's freedom. Poets, philosophers, writers and journalists, some publicly, others anonymously, set to work publishing, satirizing, agitating, all with the great object of spurring on the national conscience as Berchet, Mameli, Giusti, Gioberti, Guerrazzi, Niccolini. Meanwhile, across the ocean in America, Garibaldi with the little handful of heroes fighting under his flag, known as the *Italian legion*, was astonishing the world with his heroic and daring feats, undertaken for the liberty of another nation, thus proving to Italy's slanderers that the ancient spirit of his race was not extinguished.

To the cry "Away with the Barbarians, Death to the Germans" all Italy sprang to arms in 1848.

Milan, the head quarters of Austrian domination in Italy, was the first city to seize the opportunity and rise against the hated oppressor. Although possessed of few arms, and less ammunition, the population attacked the powerful Austrian garrison so successfully for five days, that in the history of the war of Independence the battle is known as "Milan's five days", and forced the Austrian

Marshal to retire to the strong fortress of the Mincio and the Adige.

Many other Lombard towns followed Milan's example. Venice, under the leadership of her distinguished citizen, Daniel Manin, succeeded in forcing the Austrian garrison to capitulate: and almost the whole of the Venetian province was evacuated.

The hopes of all monarchist Italians were centred on king Charles Albert, ruler of little Piedmont, who had just given his subjects their constitution.

On the announcement of the Lombard revolution he declared war on Austria in the name of national independence, exchanging his blue ancestral flag for the tricolour, green, white and red, which had flown in Italy during the Napoleonic wars and now became the national flag of New Italy.

In other regions of the Peninsula many volunteers took up arms in independent action, or joined the Piedmontese army against the Austrians.

Autocratic princes found themselves obliged to grant Constitutions, several of them, such as the Pope, the Grand Duke of Tus-

cany, the King of Naples, swept along by popular enthusiasm even sent contingents to the frontier, soon only to return, not wishing really to oppose Austria, their moral supporte fearing that once the foreign element were eliminated, Charles Albert might attempt to overthrow their sovereignty and proclaim himself King of Italy.

These sectional jealousies prevented the greater part of the country from working together as a whole. The unitarians were also divided in Monarchists, Federalists and Republicans, and consequently attempts gave no good results.

Countless acts of individual and collective courage were enacted; the Piedmontese army fought bravely and won some important battles, such as Goito.

Venetian, Lombard, Tuscan, Roman and Neapolitan volunteers gave striking proof of valour, but the final result of the war of 1848-49 was unfavourable to the Italian cause and the Austrians, who had at first been overpowered, triumphantly returned. Charles Albert, vanquished in the field, abdicated in favour of his son, Victor Emanuel II.

who, contrary to the other sovereigns of Italy, preserved intact the Constitution, and dedicated his whole life to avenging his father's misfortunes.

Years of Anxious Waiting.

With Lombardy and Venice once more in the Austrian grip, the majority of the despotic Principalities in the country flourishing afresh with the strangers' help, Italy seemed plunged anew into torpor and misery. The Austrian Government was able to delude itself for some time, that its dominion was secure, and exempt from any imminent danger; and commenced practising cruelties against its subjects, shooting, hanging, condemning, flogging without mercy, all those who possessed arms, or held ideas contrary to its authority, or conspired to rend the cruel yoke.

However, on the one hand, Mazzini, from England where he had taken refuge, reopened with ardour his work of propaganda, gathering around him young patriots eager to conspire: he set on foot popular risings against Austria, and against the other despotic governments of Italy.

On the other hand, from little Piedmont, under the wise leadership of her king, Victor Emanuel, and his minister, Massimo d'Azeglio, writer, painter and soldier, succeeded by Count Camillo Cavour, a steady policy of direct and open opposition to Austria was set on foot. Liberal and constitutional reforms were initiated on a large base, exiled patriots encouraged and welcomed, the army increased and reorganized, with the avowed object of reopening the national war of Independence at the first opportune moment.

As a symbol of this policy and to flout Austria, Victor Emanuel continued to fly the Tricolour, the Flag of the whole nation, under which the campaigns of '48 and '49 had been fought.

Naturally it was to Victor Emanuel, and relying on his brave army, that the majority of valiant Italians looked for their salvation, tacitly assigning to him the crown of that united and independent Italy, which had been the dream and hope of so many generations. Re Galantuomo - the "honest man king," - as he was always called, is a gallant figure who had risked his life on his country's battle

fields, and repulsed with disdain Austria's insidious proposals to abolish the constitution of his kingdom. Many republicans, including Daniel Manin, the Venetian, now in exile in France, little by little abandoned their political ideas and offered their cooperation in the great work of redemption of their country.

Whilst Piedmont slowly but assiduously prepared herself for future conflicts, Mazzini's followers conspired to upset the Austrian Government and the other despotic states; but all these attempts failed, and many generous hearted patriots expiated on the scaffold and in Austrian prisons their ardent desire to liberate their country from oppression. Others, exiles in distant lands, by the nobility of their lives in the midst of misery and adversity contributed to foster amongst other nations esteem and affection for Italy, and the desire to assist the beautiful and unfortunate country to regain her lost liberty.

The ideas of independence and liberty gained fresh vigour from the blind and savage revenge which Austria took against the patriots. Many who at first were timid and undecided, who did not approve of the uni-

tarian tendency, felt the hatred in their souls increased against the oppressors and the desire for national union intensified at the sight of such persecution, so much blood spilt and so many martyrs.

The youth of the rising generation, together with the veterans of the previous unhappy but glorious campaigns, never abandoned their unremitting efforts for their country's welfare. From the Alps to Sicily, in the name of that inviolate principle, that every nation has the right to be the arbitrator of its own fate, the cry of oppressed Italy rang out to the World, (the founders of American liberty had already found their inspiration in those principles); Garibaldi wrote from New York that at the first signs of the new revolution he was ready to gird anew the Sword of Rome and priests, lawyers, doctors, working men and women worked together unanimously to fan the flame of patriotism.

Indeed all Italy's martyrs knew how to meet death with calm pride, to support with dignity the dastard tortures of the vile oppressors, who took pleasure in adding inhuman derision to their other crimes; sen-

ing, for instance, the bill for the hangman's rope to the mother of Tito Speri. The Austrian government officially published that in one year they had pronounced almost a thousand death sentences in Lombardy and Venetia, and between the years 1849-51 more than 4000 individuals were condemned for political reasons. "For patriotic songs, for conversations hostile to Government, for applauding, for hissing", women and children were condemned to be flogged; two girls, one aged twenty, the other eighteen were condemned in Lombardy to forty strokes each for having laughed during a demonstration.

More than 60 years have passed away, the light of civilization has spread through the world; but these barbarians remain always barbarians, as they have demonstrated during the war of to-day, with the atrocious tortures inflicted on Nazario Sauro, Cesare Battisti and Filzi.

On the outbreak of the Russian-Turkish War Victor Emanuel's Government deemed it advisable to unite themselves more intimately with the two great powers, England and France, and sent a small expeditionary force

to take its place in the Crimea beside these great Allies. Alfonso La Marmora was given the command, and had under him also volunteers from Lombardy, Venetia and even the Trentino, thus exemplifying how strongly the feeling of nationality was felt by the nation which Austria was trying to germanize.

Though decimated by contagious disease, the Italian force fought bravely and gained fresh laurels for the tricolour, thus cancelling the unfortunate records of the campaign of '49. Specially noteworthy was the success of the Piedmontese troops in the battle of Cernaia, where, realizing the importance of the position allotted to them, though greatly outnumbered and exposed to a deadly fire, they succeeded, with a courage equal to that of the famous Zouaves, in arresting the Russian onslaught.

During this engagement a touching spectacle occurred. The sick and wounded behind the lines burst open the doors, and even jumped from the windows of their hospitals, to join their comrades under fire, crying: "When the enemy is in sight we cannot remain inactive." With such sol-

diers, who could despair for the salvation and liberation of their country? Their heroism was freely extolled by the French and English generals in their despatches, thus holding up to the admiration of Europe and the civilized world the efficacy of the soldiers of Victor Emanuel.

Not in vain was Italian blood shed in the Crimea, for, from that moment, as Cavour had foreseen, European diplomacy began to interest itself with the Italian question, and the idea gained ground as to the necessity of clearing the peninsula of the Austrians, and giving the people the right to govern themselves according to their nationality. It is this principle the President of the U. S. of America has so efficaciously expounded and sustained in his admirable speeches (a just principle, that is going to triumph To-day, thanks to the unity and firmness of the civilized nations against barbarians). Cavour invoked this justice at the Congress of Paris, before the representatives of all the principal nations of Europe, and if it was not altogether warmly received, at least some diplomats and Napoleon III the French Emperor deigned to give it favourable consideration.

The second War of Independence.

Count Cavour, cleverly fostering the sympathy that the Piedmontese government had engendered in the mind of the Emperor Napoleon III, together with his desire to gain the upper hand in Europe, induced him to promise that, if Austria should provoke Piedmont, a French army would descend into Italy to aid that of Victor Emanuel to drive out Austria from the country. With a subtle manipulation of prudent diplomacy Cavour overcame all obstacles, and succeeded in provoking a declaration of war from Austria. In the spring of '59 a French army, led by their Emperor, joined the Piedmontese under V. Emanuel, fighting side by side, for the expulsion of the Austrian.

Garibaldi hurried from America to put himself at the disposition of the King, who gave him the command of a brigade of volunteers from all parts, including even the Trentino.

At the battle of Palestro the personal heroism of Victor Emanuel, charging at the

ad of a regiment of French zouaves, so ed those veterans of the French army with miration, that they not only insisted on esenting him with the cannon taken from e enemy, but with military familiarity, as mark of appreciation, dubbed him their sporal. Indeed the French and Piedmontese ny, together with Garibaldi's volunteers, vied with each other in deeds of courage t heroism at the battles of Montebello, estro and San Martino. On the other hand, stria distinguished herself with her usual uman and stupid cruelties, shooting for tance a whole family of peasants, old and ng, simply because an Austrian patrol had d a few grains of gunpowder in their use.

The result of the campaign did not un-
tunately correspond to the patriots' hopes,
just as the French and Piedmontese armies
re on the point of crossing the Mincio,
dislodge the Austrians from the Veneto,
Emperor Napoleon, for a conglomeration
political, military and sentimental reasons,
ulated for an Armistice, and then a Treaty
Peace. In consequence Austria gave up

Lombardy alone, and not the Veneto and other Italian territories.

This peace, signed at Villafranca, crushed the Italian hopes, leaving them very indignant, and Cavour abandoned the Ministry in sign of protest.

The Dawn of Liberty.

The war of 1859 was more far reaching in its effects than were at first apparent.

The populations of Parma, Modena, Bologna and Tuscany, on the announcement of the first victories, rose against their Sovereigns, who had refused to join Piedmont in the war against Austria. Gaining a bloodless victory they compelled their rulers to fly: then, acting on a referendum, proclaimed their independence and decreed their union with the Kingdom of Victor Emanuel.

These events took place between the years 1859-60. They were the beginning of the Italian Unity, founded on a *plebiscito*; i. e. the will of the people expressed in a vote of the majority of the inhabitants.

A State was thus formed, which comprised about half Italy, viz: Piedmont and the island

of Sardinia, Lombardy, the ancient Duchies of Modena, Parma, and Tuscany, and some provinces of the Papal States. This State, sprung into being through Revolution, was not recognized by the great European powers, themselves for the most part under dynasties endowed with the "divine right." Indeed Austria and Russia threatened destruction and would probably have accomplished it, had not the French Emperor upset their diplomatic intrigues.

The Work of Unity was far from complete.

The Austrian still remained in the Veneto, the Trentino, Istria and in the territory on the other side of the Adriatic; the Pope ruled at Rome, in Umbria and the Marches; the Bourbon King in the Neapolitan region and

Sicily. In all these districts the people lived in continual ferment, ready to rise at the first signal from Victor Emanuel, clamouring to be united to their fellow countrymen, and consolidate that Italy of their dreams which had been the goal of so many generations.

The Thousand

The particularly cruel domination exercised by the King of Naples in Sicily had goaded the population into many attempts of revolution, and their cry of anguish, and appeals for help were frequent and desperate.

After the campaign of 1859, Garibaldi, who had retired to the little island of Capri near Sardinia, urged by some exiled Sicilians, conceived the audacious idea of landing their island with a small force to aid the revolutionists. Victor Emanuel secretly favoured the enterprise.

A thousand volunteers quickly gathered around the great Condottiero. Indeed the magic names, of Italy and Garibaldi, exercised such a fascination over the youth of the day, that volunteers from all regions, of all ages, left even comfortable homes to hurl themselves enthusiastically into the most dangerous enterprises.

On May 5, 1860, with these thousand men, scarcely any arms or ammunition, Garibaldi sailed on two captured ships from the littoral town of Marsala.

village of Quarto, near Genoa, for the Sicilian shores, hearing with him, as the Poet wrote, "the Destiny of Italy".

In two months, this handful of men had freed the island from the Bourbon yoke, and Garibaldi crossed to terra ferma to disperse other armies of the Bourbon king. He collected around him the Neapolitan population, and on Sept. 7 triumphantly entered Naples, greeted with delirious joy by the inhabitants. He assumed the title of Dictator, and inscribed on his flag: "Italy and Victor Emmanuel", signifying with these words the idea that the provinces liberated by him should be united under the great Mother Italy in the constitutional Kingdom of Victor Emmanuel.

All Garibaldi's undertakings are a poem of glory, valour and sacrifice.

The generation of To-day, who has taken Gorizia and Monte Nero, defended the Grappa and the Montello, has drawn inspiration from the memory of these glorious ancestors, who, without food, surgeons or bullets, just with their old carbines and the faithful bayonet, defied and put to flight the ranks of the

Bourbon King singing the famous hymn composed the previous year:

Go hence from Italy,
Go forth, the hour has come;
Away from Italy,
Out with you, stranger!

What words are there to describe the grandeur and nobility of character of the Dictator, who, after having conquered a country incited its population to give their unanimous vote for the union with V. Emanuel's kingdom refused all honours and rewards, laid down his Dictatorship and retired to his island home of Caprera, dedicating himself to agriculture? His only spoils of war were some sacks of seed, potatoes and stock fish. He, who had administrated millions, who had seen the greatest ones of the earth bow before him, returned to his goats and plough, not disdaining to use the spade and prepare his modest supper with his own hands. The whole world united in acclaiming him, messages of admiration and reverence came from every country to the "Hero of the two Worlds." Always modest, he left honours and pomps to others, he impersonated in himself Washington and

Franklin united. When the hour should call him to fight again, he declared himself always ready to unsheathe his sword anew for his Country and for Liberty. This was his constant thought and dream!

The Kingdom of Italy.

Finally dawned the hour so long awaited, so ardently desired, which had cost so many lives and for which so many sacrifices had been made. The Union of Italy, if not completed, was at last initiated, and the moment seemed at hand where the Italians, with unanimous and untrammelled vote should decide their Destiny.

In 1860, shortly after Garibaldi's occupation of Sicily, V. Emanuel's army entered the field.

Count Cavour, a statesman of great acumen, took occasion to protest against acts of grave violence committed by Papal mercenaries in the Umbrian cities, and demanded their dismissal by the Pontifex. A brusque refusal induced the King to declare war, and occupy the Marches and Umbria.

At the battle of Castelfidardo, the taking of Perugia, the siege of Ancona, the Italian

troops displayed their usual ardour, and passed triumphantly into the Kingdom of Naples to aid in the operations of Garibaldi, taking the fortresses of Gaeta and Capua on the way, and definitely routing the Bourbon King from his own territory. Then by solemn plebiscite the Marches and Umbria announced the union of all their region to those already under V. Emanuel's sway.

Thus was the Kingdom of Italy proclaimed, to the unconcealed dismay of many European diplomats, who long delayed to recognize this new State evolved from revolution, rebellion and popular uprisings, considering such a state of things constituted a serious menace to Europe. But little the Italians cared for tacit disapproval or covert threats; strong in their own Rights, and secure in their consciousness of having performed a holy work, they prepared to add to the young Kingdom the provinces still groaning under the stranger's iron yoke.

Fresh progress.

Although the new State had taken the name of the Kingdom of Italy, this was true in name

nore than in fact. The Provinces of Piedmont, Sardinia, Lombardy, Emilia, Tuscany, Umbria and the Marches, Naples and Sicily, were, it is true, after many centuries united as one family, under the same laws, the same sovereign, with full rights of free citizens. But the subjects of some of the Papal States were yet absent from the family circle as were the Venetians, Trentini, Triestini and Dalmatians, who remained under the mailed fist of Austria.

These people, especially the Venetians, comported themselves admirably. They all abstained from amusements, dressed modestly as if in mourning for their country, let no occasion pass to protest against their oppressors, manifesting in every manner their intention to unite themselves to their liberated countrymen.

From 1860-66 many conspiracies were hatched; but Cavour's successors (he had died in 1861), knowing the temper of European politics, did not encourage these efforts, and even forcibly prevented Garibaldi's friends from fostering the public unrest. In 1866 however, when the war between Prussia and

Austria was on the eve of breaking out, a military alliance was effected with the former power, and the Italian army, reinforced with many volunteers led by Garibaldi, marched towards the Venetian frontiers with the object of occupying Venice and the Trentino. The expedition was not exactly a success; however, as a result of diplomatic treaties and through the intercession of the French Emperor, Austria ceded a large part of the Veneto; but nothing would induce her to renounce the Trentino and the other Italian provinces, and she deluded herself into the belief that the United Kingdom would now abandon any ultimate hopes of obtaining them.

Rome, the capital of Italy.

In proclaiming the Kingdom of Italy, in 1861, Count Cavour solemnly stated that the capital should undoubtedly be Rome, with all the traditions and memories of her ancient grandeur. But at Rome was the Pope, protected by foreign bayonets, and all attempts were fruitless to induce him to renounce his temporal possessions, and content

himself, according to the precepts of the Gospel, with spiritual dominion only. The French Emperor even interposed with an armed force on his behalf to check a Garibaldian attempt to invade his State.

But in 1870, when Napoleon III lost his throne, and France had proclaimed herself a Republic, the Italian Government itself invaded the Papal State, and on the 20th of September of that memorable year, Italy's soldiers finally entered Rome, which soon after became practically as she had been morally, the Capital of the Kingdom.

With these events the revolutionary period closed, and all energies were directed to consolidating the forces of the country, putting the finances on a sound base, reconstructing the army and navy, and inaugurating civil progress.

Italy and the unredeemed brothers.

It is opportune to point out that Italy never forgot her unredeemed brothers.

All her writers, from Mazzini, who, in 1866, solemnly protested against the Treaty of Peace which assigned to Italy such limited

frontiers, to Carducci, the great national poet, who at every opportunity lifted up his powerful voice to invoke the liberation of Trent and Trieste, and record their sufferings, all the literature of modern Italy is impressed with similar sentiments; while the population of this land gives splendid proofs of firmness and courage in defending her sacred patrimony against all attempt of German and Slav predomination.

Violently hated and opposed by Austria, who in every way attempted to suppress their nationality, either by inciting other populations against them, or by preventing the development of their intellectual, economic, and industrial existence, the Italians of Trento, Trieste, and Dalmatia, mindful of their origin, tradition, history and civilization, proud of their language symbolical of their nationality ever retorted with a passive and active resistance in defence of their rights; those rights, which Austria had so often recognized in theory and violated in practice. Through gymnastic Societies, Alpine and boy's clubs, reading rooms, lectures, newspapers, ecclesiastical discourses and historical works, the

Germans and Slavs sought to oppose the Italianism of Trento, and Trieste; the Italians checkmated with similar institutions.

The *unredeemed brothers* seized every opportunity to share openly in Italy's joys. From 1859, when Giovanni Prati, the poet, appealed to Victor Emanuel, in the name of his Trentino, not to forget *his sons in the valley of the Adige*, to the cradle given by the women of the unredeemed land to Princess Margherita of Savoy, on the birth, in 1869, of the present King of Italy, Victor Emanuel III; from the celebrations in Trieste, when Rome was finally united to the rest of Italy, down to those held for the recent Italian victories in Tripoli, not only in her joys, but in her sorrows, hopes and disillusionments, they mingled their affectionate cry. Often their goods were confiscated; for a gesture, a letter, an imprudent phrase, they were arrested, tried, condemned for high treason or forced to fly to Italy, if they did not want to spend long years buried in dungeons; in spite of this the majority never hid their patriotic sentiments, their national aspirations. Symbolical of these feelings are the

great Italian names, such as Verdi and Carducci, given to the principal streets and public buildings by the Triestini; whilst at Trento as before quoted, a monument was solemnly erected to Dante Alighieri, the immortal poet, who, in marvellous verse delineated the confines of Italy and who is regarded as the patron saint of Italian nationality.

Amongst the martyrs for the national idea, first and foremost stands out the name of Oberdan of Trieste. He willingly sacrificed his existence for his country, at a moment when she seemed to have forgotten her unredeemed sons, and for political reasons had even entered into an alliance with Austria. Young, handsome and courageous, this youth, full of faith and hope, forced to serve under the Austrian colours, deserted and fled to Italy, where he occupied himself in assembling valorous volunteers for an invasion of Istria, hoping that Garibaldi would lead the expedition. The hero of Rome and Sicily had indeed written: "I shall be with you in this last War against Austria; if I am not able to ride, I will drive or be bound on my horse". But, alas, he died in 1882 and all hope seemed

blighted. Then Oberdan stepped into the breach, believing it would help the cause if a Triestino sacrificed his life. He left Rome, crossed the frontier, carrying some bombs intended for the Habsburg Emperor who was about to visit Trieste; but he was soon discovered, arrested and condemned to death. All petitions for clemency, including even one from Victor Hugo, the great French poet, were unavailing. The cruel sentence was brutally carried out and on Dec. 20, 1882 Oberdan was hung. The bill for the hangman's rope, with the Government's impudence, was sent to his poor mother, as had been done in the case of the Belfiore martyrs.

His death was worthy of the great and noble cause, for up to the last moment (like Pier Fortunato Calvo before him) the heroic youth showed pride in his sentence, declaring that he "*died exultant*," knowing that sooner or later his death would help towards the reunion of Trieste with Italy. It is in the sacred name of Oberdan that Italy's youth has girded itself for War to-day, against the *hanging sovereign*; that they have died in their thousands for the triumph of the cause,

which formerly was his. But to-day the tricolour floats over liberated Trieste and causes the bones of the heroic youth to exult in his grave.

Other Martirs.

After Oberdan's death, Austria redoubled her persecutions and violence. Fear of *irredentism* caused her to prohibit the most innocuous associations. The nobility of Trieste, Trento, Zara, Sebenico and Spalato, were imprisoned and persecuted on the most trivial suspicions; thousands of youths had to fly into exile; Italian civic authorities were strictly supervised, many ancient privileges were abolished; the University, so long and repeatedly promised to Trento, was never conceded; against the Italians, the worst elements of the German and Slav races were instigated.

The cities swarmed with spies, who reported to the Government every act, word or thought. For example, in 1885, an honest girl of 14 was impeached for disloyalty and remained for a long time in prison, simply because she had been accused without any proof,

of having praised Italy. When in 1914, Austria with her own hands broke the Triple Alliance and with her brutal aggression on Serbia, began the inhuman war that has now drawn to an end to-day, and has overthrown its provocators, thousands of young *irredenti* from Trieste, Trento and Dalmatia crossed the frontier, in spite of the great danger, so as not to be forced to wear the hated Austrian uniform, and to bear arms alongside of the oppressors against the defenders of civilization, justice and right.

Together with these, many older men, celebrated in literature, art and commerce left that land, and on them the barbarous Austrian Government wreaked terrible revenge, throwing their families into horrible concentration camps, together with thousands of people suspected of having Italian sentiments. Almost all who fled to Italy, if their age and strength permitted it, begged in 1915, to take up arms against Austria in the ranks of the Italian army, well aware of their fate if they fell into the cruel hands of their enemy. Many have died in this heroic war, many have gained military honours, but tragic

has been the lot of those few taken prisoners.

A cry of horror rang through the civilized world at the announcement of the execution of Cesare Battisti, deputy for Trento, eloquent orator, and great patriot, taken prisoner while fighting in the ranks of an Italian *alpine* regiment, on M.te Corno, and greater horror, rage and scorn was excited when the details of that execution were cynically published by the Austrian press. Wounded in battle, Battisti had been dragged at a horse's tail, among the insults of soldiers and the mob to the Castle of Trento. Twice the fatal rope broke and twice was replaced round his neck, but the hero remained always calm and smiling, and died pronouncing scornful words against his persecutors, crying, when the fatal cord was in position: "*Long live Italy! death to Austria!*"

After him was hung Fabio Filzi of Rovereto, also an officer in the Italian army, and Francesco Rismondo born at Spalato in Dalmatia, decorated with a military medal, for courage shown as a bersagliere officer. He fell wounded in action, and ac-

cording to reliable witnesses, was hung and burnt whilst still alive by the Austrians. The brave sea-captain Nazario Sauro of Capodistria had put himself at the orders of the Italian navy at the outbreak of the War, and as a naval lieutenant had taken part in many daring raids on the Istrian and Dalmatian coast so well known to him. He fell a prisoner in Austrian hands and showed great pride and strength of mind. The cruel governor did not hesitate to call in his mother and sister to identify him, under moral and material torture, forced them to declare that he was their son and brother! As if this cruelty was not enough, the two poor women were compelled to assist at his execution. Such governors are unworthy to exist, and should be radically destroyed. In the name of the old and the new martyrs, Italianism had obtained its well-merited triumph.



THE NATIONAL WAR

WHY ITALY CAME INTO THE WAR

The moral and material reasons for which Italy entered the war, after a short period of neutrality, are to be clearly seen. These reasons are many and varied; some evident to all, other less obvious, but equally based on the principles of justice, right and honesty.

It is known, that at the outbreak of the present War, Italy was bound to Austria and Germany by a treaty of Alliance, that special conditions of foreign policy had rendered advisable and almost imperative, because of the jealousy of other powers.

But it is equally well known that in this alliance, Italy had for a long time felt only the weight without the advantages. Austria specially was more a foe than a friend and on various occasions had disclosed her in-

tention, to unexpectedly invade the frontier and retake the ancient territory of Lombardy and the Veneto. It is a well known fact, that when the great earthquake of 1908 destroyed Messina and Calabria, the powerful General Conrad proposed to declare war on Italy taking advantage of that national calamity to surprise the Italian army unprepared. And no one is unaware that the heir to the Austrian throne, Archduke Ferdinand, shared the idea and hopes of that General, and only the fear that other powers might descend in the field, restrained the Emperor from acting on his advice. From that day the Alliance might be considered virtually broken, and only infinite and endless Italian patience prevented an open rupture. The conduct of Austria too during the Libyan War, though apparently friendly, was secretly very hostile, as has been fully proved by official documents. Moreover, when Austria threatened Serbia with such unexpected and unjustifiable violence she herself had violated one of the fundamental articles of the Alliance, in not informing her so-called ally, and in acting against the latter's interests.

Thus it was not Italy who broke her compacts, as the lying politicians in Austria and their Press asserted, but Austria herself, who repeatedly attempted to attack with treachery, and, in the moment when she vaunted the Alliance, dealt her ably a serious blow.

Italy thus remained neutral in the early months of the War, and this attitude of hers was very beneficial to France and her faithful ally England, because it permitted the French army to leave the alpine frontier unprotected and concentrate her forces against the Germans. Many French politicians and writers, in their newspapers and books, recognized the great services thus rendered to the cause of civilization by Italy, and confessed, that the victory of the Marne, which held up the victorious march of the Germans, would not have been possible, if Italy's benevolent neutrality had not left free a large number of French forces.

Italy's conduct was dictated by ideal reasons of justice and right. The nation, born from the immortal principles of Revolution, moulded according to a Plebiscite, inspired by the idea that every nation has the right to

decide its own destiny and resist oppression, was not capable of contributing military assistance to an undertaking of violence and oppression, of firing a single shot against a nation so eminently democratic as the French, who had struck the first note in the struggle for Liberty.

Besides this, the Italian nation, profoundly sensible to the call of honour, faithful to pledges, enemy of all tyranny and injustice, felt deeply wounded in her moral feelings by the iniquitous violation of Belgium carried out by Germany, thus breaking every treaty, every plighted word. A people, who had overthrown the Bourbons, and the other Princes who enjoyed their rule in Italy chiefly because they too had broken their compacts, could not remain side by side with a nation, who made violence and injustice the base of all their calculations.

Those who lived in Italy, during those memorable months from August 1914 to the day in which Italy entered the war, can testify that all true citizens, including also the limited number of those who were contrary to the War, had words of severe cen-

sure for the Germans, not only promise breakers, but in addition, brutal and wanton destroyers of priceless works of Art, profaners of Churches, obscene violators of women and children.

The Italian nation, even the simple peasant, has inherited from his forefathers innate artistic tastes and chivalrous sentiments, and viewed with horror the devastation, death and dishonour left in the track of the modern Hun, but was full of admiration for the Belgian people, who preferred ruin and desolation, rather than bend before the tyrant. These sentiments grew in volume; and the Italian nation, already ill disposed towards the Austrians for their continual aversive policy and opposition to every Italian idea, became more and more embittered as the news of the ill treatment towards the Italians of Trento, Trieste and Dalmatia trickled in, and broke into unbounded disgust when it became evident, that the victory of Germany and her ally would signify the triumph of militarism and brutality, and the defeat of justice and democracy. Italy unsheathed her sword to prevent Europe falling under the dominion of the

modern barbarian, who, under a veneer of civilization, conceals the brutal instincts of his race, without troubling to dissimulate his projects of world dominion.

Little cared Italy if the moment was unpropitious, that she was inadequately equipped, her military stores at a low ebb. War was insisted upon, not only by the higher powers who foresaw the dangers of the future but chiefly by the great mass of the people with their natural flair for the opportune moment and consciousness of justice and right. Austria attempted to avert the danger with insincere promises (as her politicians admitted later), of concessions with regard to some Italian territory beyond the frontier, but the nation, in unison with its Ministers, spurned these tardy, incomplete and insincere proposals, and braced itself with enthusiasm for the struggle.

In entering the arena, Italy had also the aim in view of consolidating her national unity, correcting the injustices committed to her detriment, and pushing her traditional foe back to the frontiers ordained by nature, tradition, history and language. These con-

fines were majestically defined by King Victor Emanuel III himself as *sacred limits*.

Italy, like America, could have enjoyed great advantages from neutrality, but once convinced that her intervention was just and holy, and responded to the ideals of humanity, she preferred war, with all its sacrifices and risks.

What Italy demanded.

Naturally Italian diplomacy did not enter into an alliance with France, England and the other Powers, without stipulating conditions, to be guaranteed to her when peace should be concluded.

She evinced her firm proposition, not of appropriating other people's land, but of taking what nature, language, education and history have always indicated as Italian, thus completing Italian Unity, according to those great principles which President Wilson later on so clearly expressed in his memorable speeches.

It has been repeatedly asserted, that the Alps and the sea indicate the geographical boundaries of Italy.

The Alps, in their eastern curve, embrace and enclose the region of Trent and of the Upper Adige, and descend to the sea at the Gulf of Quarnero. From one side, the rivers drain to the Danube, through German territory, on the other, they fall into Italian seas. This *Watershed* defines the natural confines of Italy. Beyond it dwells a purely German and Slav race: on this side, a race purely Italian with a slight filtering of German and other elements in the country and some towns, result of a hustly and tenacious system of violence and propaganda.

The Austrian Government has vainly endeavoured, by false census and statistics to demonstrate, that the majority in some of these regions is not Italian, attempting to give even German and Slav names to the towns, rivers, and mountains on the maps. The indignant protest of the inhabitants accentuated the falseness of these maps and statistics.

The Trentino, with the neighbouring valley of the Upper Adige, an entirely Italian river, the region of the Carso and Istria are all vividly Italian.

At Pirano, Parenzo, Capo d'Istria, Pola, Rovigno only the Italian language is spoken and understood: at Fiume 32.000 Italians live with 6.000 Magyars and 12.000 Slavs.

In the Trentino, there are no people who speak or will understand German; in the region of the Upper Adige, the place names are nearly all Roman; the climate, products of the soil, demonstrate that we are in Italy; and the traveller, when he crosses the Brennero Pass, cannot help but realize that he is in different territory to Germany. The towns of Bolzano, Bressanone, Merano, Brunico, do not in any manner resemble German towns; their external appearance is entirely Italian. Finally the extreme northern point of the Alps east of the Brennero, is marked on all, except German, maps as *Italy's summit*.

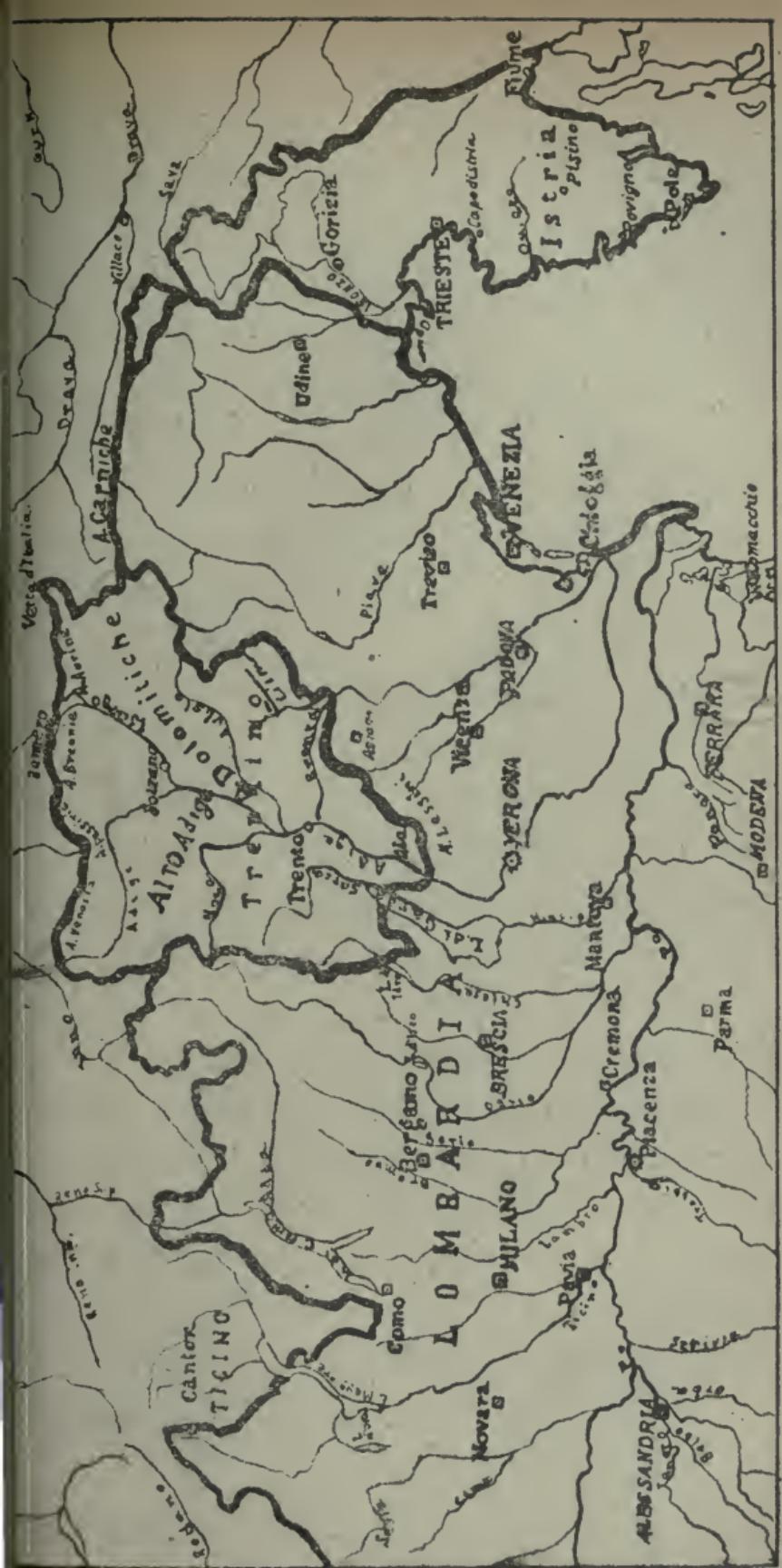
All the triangle has a population of about 600.000 inhabitants of which 420.000 are Italians, 180.000 only are Germans, who have penetrated little by little along the valleys.

In addition to the claims of justice, the possession of this natural line of defence is very necessary to Italy.

We trust and hope, that this may be the very last war of our Era, and that a League of Nations, based on the great principles of justice and reciprocal affection, may prevent any repetition of violence. But given the eternal liability of human nature to resort to force of arms, and universal Peace being still a chimera, it is necessary to take steps that the doors should be well closed against foreign invasion.

The doors of Italy, up till now, have been unfortunately left open, and widely so.

The frontier, arranged in 1866, between Italy and Austria, was never a strategic barrier. It was traced in such a way, as to leave every commodity to Austria to comfortably invade Lombardy and the Veneto. Indeed, a big triangle of Italian land (which has its lowest angle near the Lake of Garda, and its base in the higher valleys of the Adige, and its tributary the Isargo), under Austrian jurisdiction, penetrates like a wedge into the heart of the valley of the Po, leaving about 30 open doors to the invader. Besides this, the Austrians have perched themselves in all the surrounding elevated margins of this



The old and the new Boundaries of Italy.

wedge, leaving to Italy the low lying district most exposed, and difficult to protect. Whilst Austria had facility to attack, on the west Valtellina and the Bresciano, on the south the Veronese and the Vicentino, on the east the Friuli; Italy was obliged to erect a rough arrangement of fortifications and barriers which gave no guarantee of safety.

We will not speak of the eastern frontier where the Venetian plain lay entirely exposed to any sudden attack.

Whatever may be the fate of Austria in the future peace, reasons of safety and justice demand, that Italy must have a solid and easily defended frontier. She asks only for the keys of her own house, her own property nothing belonging to others; asks that the strategic inferiority should cease, which, since 1866, has been the torture of all her politicians and generals; that the frontier should be transported to the *Watershed* of the Alps, to the Brennero Pass; that the fatal triangle should be entirely given up to her, because her safety and future tranquillity depend on it. Whilst two sides of this triangle, or only part of it remains Austrian, this military

security can never be attained, and many breaches are left open to invasion. Italy's War of to day has been therefore a defensive campaign, for, in the Treaty of London, the restitution of her territory up to the Brennero, and the *summit of Italy* with the Carso region, as far as the Gulf of Quarnero, is guaranteed to her.

Maritime confines.

The frontiers of Italy are not only on *terra ferma*; from her configuration, as a Peninsula, she has an extended maritime frontier and existence. All naval men have known for a long time that the naval defence system of Italy, in the Adriatic on her eastern coast, was in a disastrous condition.

The Treaty of 1866, iniquitously sanctioned the naval inferiority of Italy, and the almost absolute impossibility of defence.

It is sufficient to glance at the map to be convinced. Austria had, as her own, all the best ports, all the good naval bases, adapted as much for defence as offence, whilst Italy has very few and inferior military ports.

Austria kept for herself the greater part of the Italian territory that Venice possessed up till 1797, considered even in those days indispensable to her security, commerce and prosperity. Not only are the towns all Italian, but following down the coast from Quarnero to Cattaro, almost all the maritime towns and ports of any importance, and some of the numerous islands of the littoral have the majority of their inhabitants Italian or bear indelible signs of the dominion of Rome and Venice.

With great ability and patience Austria fortified these bases and turned them into powerful instruments of war, a perpetual menace to the neighbouring Italian coast while Italy, notwithstanding all her efforts has not been able to better the truly deplorable condition of her coast, or to provide herself even with some mediocre military ports, to shelter her naval squadrons.

It was from Pola especially, that Austria exercised her dominion in the *upper Adriatic*, whilst on the Italian shore, there is only Venice, which, from the special condition of her lagoons is not adapted to shelter big war-

ships, or even a large squadron of mediocre tonnage.

From Spalato Austria dominated the middle Adriatic, whilst Italy, with her shallow shore, without gulfs or bays, has no port worthy of the name, as Ancona has no possibility of being used as a naval port.

In the lower Adriatic, Austria had the magnificent port of Cattaro, admirably defended by nature, while Italy had only Brindisi, which, only after great expense and labour, has been able to be used as a naval base of some importance. Finally, while on the coast subject to Austria numerous islands and channels offered a secure port against storms and the enemy, the Italian shores were entirely exposed, having only two ports and neither very good, separated from each other by a distance of 1300 kilometres, whilst the Austrian navy in Pola and Cattaro had two magnificent ports, and a great number of intermediate points, some of immense value. Notwithstanding this state of inferiority, the Italian sailor in the present War, with splendid courage and superhuman efforts, has succeeded in obliging the Austrians

to remain shut up in their bases, where they have even audaciously attacked and defied them.

It was not right that this irrational state of things, so contrary to every idea of justice, should last for ever, and for this reason the allied powers recognized Italy's right to return into possession of her Venetian heritage, to complete on the seas her national unit, and possess the Adriatic ports indispensable for her life and prosperity and as a defence against future menace.

The War on Land

The Italian Government knew it well, as the Italians knew it, and the King had already said it in his proclamation of May 1915 that the war Italy was about to undertake would be both hard, long, and difficult. The Austrian army was powerful, warlike, and well prepared, as the Austrian Government had meditated making war against Italy for a very long time; the positions taken up by Austria were all most powerful, because the boundaries that had been assigned to her in 1866 comprised the whole line of

the highest Alps, from which heights, from the Stelvio Alpine pass to the sea, she could overlook and control the Italian strategical positions below.

The Italian army, on the contrary, that had only just come out of the Libyan war, had used up all the reserve of arms and ammunition, the stores of provisions and of clothing, and might with reason have been considered unprepared. This fact, added to the disastrous conditions of the frontier, placed it in a state of inferiority, as regards which there can be no discussion.

Nor was this state of inferiority compensated by the diversion of Austrian forces in the eastern theatre of war, because the Russian forces, as early as May 1915, had already begun to fall away, and to show that organic weakness, that was to eventually lead to a complete break down. Therefore an eminent military critic made a just comparison in saying that the Italian army might be compared to a man almost unarmed, who undertook to scale a formidably high and fortified rampart. Nevertheless the tenacity, the spirit of sacrifice, the courage of the Italian soldiers,

and the skill of their leaders, resulted in paralysing, from the start, the numerical superiority of the enemy, in abating their attempts at taking the offensive, and eventually acquiring that undoubted superiority, which has now, through so many painful trials, happily led to the final, absolute, complete and miraculous victory.

This War, that has lasted about three years and a half (from the declaration of hostilities in May, 1915, to the armistice signed at Padua on the second of November 1918) may be divided into five perfectly distinct periods.

In the initial phase, which cost unheard of sacrifice of life, fighting almost without big artillery, without any means of defence, with improvised trenches, the Italian army endeavoured to occupy the first steps of the enemy's formidable barrier, especially its most dangerous parts. The object of this endeavour was to prevent the enemy from entering into Italy by one or more of the gates that the frontier left wide open. From the Stelvio and the Tonale alpine passes, to the province of Brescia, in the valley of the Chiese and the

Adige, on the Asiago tableland, in the eastern border of the formidable triangle of the Trentino, all along the Carnic frontier, the open frontier of Friuli, down, down, as far as the sea of Aquileia and of Grado, for about 800 kilometers of front, it was but one line of relentless firing, one united effort to break through the enemy's barbed wire, to silence the powerful forces.

The greatest effort was concentrated chiefly against the heights that dominated the banks of the Isonzo. Formidable battles were fought at Monte Nero, Plava, Conca di Plezzo, Mt. Podgora and all along the whole of the Carnic Alps, where the enemy had set up an appalling array of big artillery; an unequal conflict, in which the Italians made slow but continued advance, notwithstanding the various asphyxiating gases and other inhuman means of warfare adopted by the enemy, and in spite of the difficulties of the ground and the artificial obstacles that had long before been accumulated there. But it was the heroic storming of the heights to the west of Gorizia, of San Michele and Mt. Sabotino, that cost the

greatest sacrifice of life and endurance. In the Cadore also laborious and tremendous efforts were made to take the highest and less disadvantageous positions on the Tofane heights and all along the boundaries marked by the Carnic Alps, on the Pal Grande, etc.

This field of the European War was undoubtedly the most difficult of all those traversed in this universal struggle; and all the Generals of other Countries who have gone over it, could not but express their unlimited admiration at the exhausting efforts sustained by the Italian army in opening out a way to its advance. Another subject for sincere admiration were the roads, bridges, etc., made to ensure the possession and the defence, and for supplying ammunition on the territory newly acquired; and the almost superhuman work accomplished in building huts, adapting caverns and various original shelters for the troops wintering on the mountains, nearly always in the perpetual snows, and often at the height of 3000 meters. Nothing but a great love of mother-country, an undying hatred of the oppressors of the past, the immense desire to reconquer the

boundaries marked out by nature, together with unfailing discipline, the outcome of affection and respect, not of brutal tyranny, could have obtained such results, which, if apparently limited, were however effectively speaking considerable, because it immobilised in great part the Austrian army on the Italian frontier, and thus relieved the Allies' front.

The very severe winter of 1915 delayed, but did not suspend operations, and in the meantime all Italy set vigorously to work to make ammunition and guns, as we shall narrate further on; new and modern artillery was produced, aeroplanes and all kinds of aircraft manufactured, antiaerial stations set up for protection against the enemy's raids over unprotected towns and villages, whilst numberless new inventions in weapons for warfare were invented.

A second period was initiated in May of 1916, with the great attempt made by the Austrian army to break through the Italian positions on the Trentino front, and to invade the Venetian provinces cutting off all that part of the Italian army engaged on the Isonzo front. Terrible encounters took place all

along the valleys of the Chiese, the Adige, the Bacchiglione, the Brenta and its affluents. At the centre on the Asiago tableland, under the overpowering pressure of the Austrians, the Italian line was broken; but on the wings in the valley of the Adige and of the Brenta the enemy's attacks were sustained and repulsed.

Finally by a rapid manœuvre of concentration of the forces, the Italian army drove out the Austrians from nearly all the positions they had conquered, thus utterly crushing with one blow and with enormous loss on the enemy's part, the famous so called Punishment Expedition (*Strafe expedition*), as the Austrians in their foolish pride intended it to be. It was a terrible battle, in which the losses on both sides were appalling; it lasted from the 14th of May to the end of June, and more than a million men took part in it, as it was accompanied also by attacks on the Isonzo front. On this occasion also the Austrians made a show of their usual barbarous system of warfare, acting with needless cruelty, using asphyxiating and poisonous gas, with various other fiendish

and disloyal devices, which, if they caused many victims, were hopelessly frustrated by the Italian iron resistance.

In the aerial warfare also, the enemy persisted in attacking unprotected towns, with the idea of causing disturbances among the population, whilst the Italian air fleet kept strictly to the rules of attacking military objects only.

The third period of the war was started in July, 1916. The enemy's offensive had failed completely, so the Italian army, after filling up the terrible gaps left in its ranks with new forces, again took up the offensive and with renewed energy made for Trieste and Trento. But the enemy was still better prepared to obstruct advance than before, with gigantic and endless trenches, caves and forts excavated in the rocks, whilst they had barricaded all the roads and rendered them almost inexpugnable with line upon line of powerful artillery.

A second time the Italian army rendered distinguished services to the cause of its Allies, by tying up all the Austrian forces on their own front, and making it impossible

in this way for that Power to send any help to the German army in its violent and bloodthirsty attack against Verdun.

The Italians conquered the formidable Mt. Sabotino, the no less terrible San Michele; Gorizia was taken by assault and all the positions in its rear damaged. In October a notable although terribly exhausting advance was accomplished in the Carso, the strongly fortified bulwark of Trieste. Without giving a moment's respite to the enemy, numerous diversive actions were undertaken in the direction of the Trentino, among which for the heroic efforts made, and the important tactical results obtained, special merit must be awarded to the retaking of the Pasubio district and the march in the zone of the Alps of Fassa, where the mountainous peak of the Cauriol was conquered and the Austrians forced to concentrate a number of their forces on this point, diverting them in this way from other fronts.

In the meantime considerable forces were fighting, together with the Anglo-French-Serbian Allies, in Macedonia and Albania, preventing the Austro-Bulgarians from removing

troops from other fronts menaced in the same way. This time also the valid co-operation given by Italy to her Allies, on both the western and southern fronts, was loyally recognised and highly praised by military critics.

The early and hard winter surprised the combatants on the new lines, and delayed, without suspending, the operations on the mountains also, where, thanks to the foresight of the military Authorities, the soldiers were better protected than before against the severe cold of the winter. The great works carried out during the summer and autumn, to facilitate the carriage of the gigantic pieces of artillery up to the highest peaks of the Alps, to victual, and furnish new supplies of everything required to the soldiers nestled up in the heights, that ranged from 700 to 3000 meters, constitute one of the most highly considered logistical undertakings on record. On no other front were there so many natural obstacles to overcome, with so many dangers to face, such as avalanches, frozen limbs, aerial raids with relative bombardments, mines that would unexpectedly blow up, etc.

In the spring, whilst the operations with air craft, with more powerful and improved means were intensified, the army began again its fatiguing march onwards, the offensive from Plava to the sea, notwithstanding that it was efficaciously contested step by step, was being little by little developed. Important positions, tenaciously and repeatedly assailed, fell into the hands of the Italians; the enemy's formidable defensive system began to crumble away: Mt. Cucco and the Vodice were espugnated in May; diversions attempted by the enemy in the zone of Trent failed miserably. English batteries joined with the Italians in the laborious task of preparing for the attack; flights of Italian and Allied aviators poured down upon the enemy's lines tons upon tons of explosives. Powerful Austrian counter offensives, carried out on a vast scale, with very great masses of men, and under the protection of a powerful artillery broke against the solid resistance of the *III Armata*.

It was necessary to consolidate the recent acquisitions made, and to send on the big artillery, so as to overcome the third line of

the enemy's defence, continually strengthened by new divisions of the Austrian army, withdrawn from the eastern front. This necessitated a brief suspension not of the minor operations, but of the attacks on a vast scale, whilst the Italian forces were nevertheless increased, in collaboration with the Allies, on the front in Albania and in Macedonia, and a small contingent of Italian soldiers was sent also to Palestine to collaborate with the English in that glorious campaign, which ended later on with the taking of Jerusalem, and by driving the Turks out of Syria.

In August of 1917, once the positions were consolidated, the attack was again taken up with renewed vigour on the Julian front, that was still deeply invested, in the same way as on Monte Santo and on San Gabriele to the east of Gorizia, also on the tableland of Bainsizza to the east of Plava, which had been converted by Austria into a most formidable entrenched camp. The Italians however did not succeed in completely breaking through, that would have opened to them the road to Trieste and Lubiana, because when

Austria saw how critical the position was, she appealed to Germany and her other allies for help.

In this way an enormous number of men and artillery were massed together on the Italian front that brought a most terrible pressure, unequalled in the history of all this War, to bear on every point of this vast zone. How it came about that the Italian line between the slopes of the Rombon and the Bainsizza tableland gave way, has not yet been thoroughly cleared up. One thing is certain that other causes, of a political nature, were added to the military weakness on that part of the line, and the fact is not to be excluded that the enemies, by illicit means, and trading on the good faith of some of the Italian divisions, cheated them with lies into the false belief that peace had been declared.

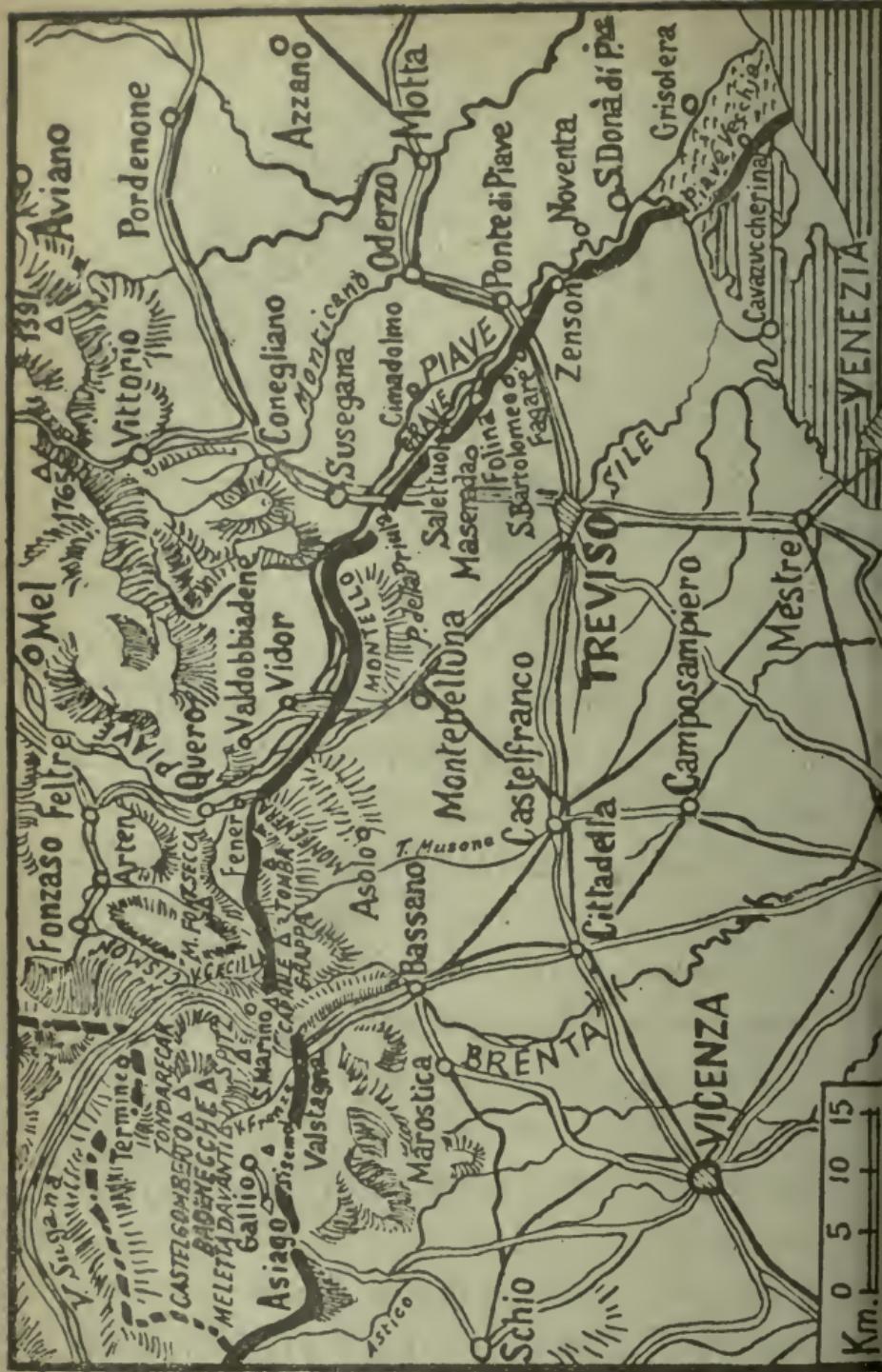
The unhappy truth is, that between the 24th and the 27th of October 1917, enormous masses of the enemy swarmed down from the Conca di Plezzo and from the Tolmino region into the Venetian plains, threatening in this way to cut off all means of retreat for the whole of the right wing of the Italian

army, so that it was necessary to abandon all the positions on the other side of the Isonzo taken at the cost of so much life, and with such patient, hard work, and to fall back, first upon the Tagliamento, and then on the Piave, recalling at the same time the divisions operating in Carnia and the Cadore.

A terrible and unspeakably heartrending retreat was this; but the valour of the troops in retreat, the generous sacrifice of entire army-corps, who protected to the last man and the last cartridge the passage over the bridges, saved in fact the mass of the Italian army from what might have been irreparable destruction.

This terrible disaster brought out all the most noble qualities of the Italian character; as each man, without allowing himself to be cast down by this cruel, undeserved, unforeseen misfortune, energetically reacted against what might have been, and dared to face it in all its appalling extent, and coldly and calmly make means to erase it.

The fourth period of the War was initiated under these conditions, and proved more splendid with glory and more full of honor



than the three preceding periods, with acts of striking heroism accomplished by single individuals, and by whole divisions of men, first, during the retreat, then during the long conflict of arms on a most difficult strategical front, which extended from the high tableland of Asiago, along a tract of the course of the Brenta, on the slopes of the Grappa as far as the course of the middle and southern Piave, down to the Venice lagoon.

It was from November 1917 to March 1918 one long uninterrupted battle against the assailants, who (not satisfied with having occupied two rich provinces, over which they gloated with all their bestial instincts of violence and robbery, to such an extent that would be impossible to believe that people, laying claim to be called civilised, could be guilty of) aspired to continue the havoc as far as the Adige, perhaps as far as the Po. Those were glorious days indeed in which in the midst of deep snow, with the rivers in flood, the Italian soldiers, few in number, with very few guns, very little ammunition, held the insolent German and Austrian

troops, reinforced by hordes of Turks and Bulgarians at bay, clinging with frenzied rage to the precipices or to the broken banks of the rivers shouting: *Non si passa!* (here you shall not pass), actually throwing away their lives with the utmost serenity to save their country from further invasion.

No less admirable was the steady firmness of the civil population, that braced itself in one huge effort to provide for the requirements of the Army, to supply ammunition, arms, nearly all the food there was "for the men at the front", and was ready to fill up the ranks thinned out by death and the many prisoners of war. We must not forget the invaluable co-operation of the marines at the delta of the Piave, and the intervention of large bodies of the Allies' forces, who, however (this fact must be remembered) entered into action during the second half of December, when the immediate danger had been overcome. Certainly their aid, both in men and war material, was most valuable; but it would be well to always remember that, from the end of October up to the second half of December, the Italians

were alone on the front, and saved their country from further invasion by their own unaided efforts. And we must not forget also that, when in March the Anglo-French front in the West was broken through by the German blind fury, and France seemed to be on the brink of destruction, a large part of the French and English forces were recalled from the Italian front, moreover a large body of Italian soldiers were sent to fight in France.

It was during this period that many positions that had been lost in the preceding November were retaken; the Italian front was settled and consolidated, and all the enemy's attacks were repulsed.

In June, 1918, the Austrians after a formidable preparation crossed the Piave, and with all their united forces did their best to break through the Italian lines and open out the way to the plains of Padua, by attacking contemporaneously on Mt. Montello, Mt. Grappa, in the valley of the Brenta, and on the tableland of Asiago. But after ten days of intense and uninterrupted fighting the assault was repulsed and the Austrian Commander-in-Chief, who had boasted that he

intended getting to Milan, was instead obliged to order a retreat to the other side of the Piave, which was more than disastrous for him.

This grand battle, one of the greatest on record, was won by the courage, abnegation, and tenacity of the Italian soldier, who showed what good fibre he is made of.

This victory at the Piave initiated the last glorious phase of the war. When the decimated ranks were filled with new men, all the positions strengthened, and the Austrians driven away from the right bank of the Piave, an offensive in grand style was planned to drive the eternal enemy once for all from the occupied provinces. So that, whilst the Commander-in-Chief Foch, at the head of the Anglo-Franco-American troops, snatched away one after the other, with successive blows of the sledge-hammer, the French lines that the Germans had occupied in March and in the successive offensives, the Italian army without giving a moment's respite to the Austrians all along the front was silently preparing its last and successful offensive.

The attack was begun October 24. With a brilliant plan of battle the enemy's forces

were diverted with repeated attacks on the wings, and the Piave was crossed; and, notwithstanding the adverse atmospherical conditions, which had caused the river to rise considerably, the enemy's line was broken at Vittorio Veneto, and by a bold manœuvre their two wings were menaced to be cut off, obliging them thus to precipitous disastrous retreat. This victory cost very dear, because for eight days the enemy held out with the greatest tenacity; but the Italian army, with fewer men and far less artillery, and led by its valiant Commander-in-Chief, General Armando Diaz, with an impetus that swept away everything before it, and with indomitable energy overcame every obstacle. Three English divisions, two French, one Czecho-Slovak and one American regiment took part in this battle, whilst the Italian divisions were 51 against 73 of the enemy's divisions.

The Austrian army was annihilated, the booty immense, the number of prisoners incalculable.

The Italian army has covered itself with glory by this truly deserved victory, and has

succeeded in obtaining all the military and political objects that the nation had set before it; namely: the liberation of the invaded territory, the redemption by force of arms of the stranger's yoke over all that territory that Austria, during the course of years, had usurped, and the overthrow, in collaboration with its Allies, of the Austro-German military power. When we stop to consider that contemporaneously a strong and numerous army-corps was fighting on French soil for the liberation of French territory invaded by the Germans, that other army-corps were fighting and conquering in Macedonia and in Albania by the side of the other Allies; that finally, in Palestine also, the Italians contributed to the final victory, we can but recognise that the Italian army and its Commanders well deserve the honour paid them by the Italian nation, and have fully done their duty towards the common cause and all its Allies.

The Naval War.

Not less worthy of the highest praise was the arduous work carried out by the Italian Royal Navy.

Considering the strategic conditions of the Adriatic, which has been opportunely defined as *a sea in a sack*, it might have been feared that a naval War would have turned out disastrously for Italy.

The Austrian side of the Adriatic, as already stated; was all a succession of marvellous natural bases for naval operations, whilst the Italian coast was only an open danger with no means of defence. Instead, from the outset the situation has been entirely reversed, owing to the miracles of work, constancy and courage. The Austrian fleet, with the exception of some brief raids, dearly paid for, shut itself up in its ports, from which a thousand provocations have failed to tempt it forth.

Seeing the abnormal conditions of the Italian defence, all naval men of the allied and neutral nations agree, that wonders have been performed.

During the early days of the War, taking advantage of their safe position on the Dalmatian coast, a few of the enemy's light cruisers suddenly swooped down on some of our open coast towns, bombarded them wildly, and then fled to hide themselves anew in the

labyrinths of the Dalmatian coast. The Italian navy conceived a most efficacious remedy for these attacks, which, owing to the lengthy sea-board, could not be effectively repulsed from the sea.

They established a series of armoured trains, mounted with heavy guns, which incessantly patrolled the coast (the railway track follows the Adriatic shore very closely), and on the first signal of alarm were able to be on the spot in a few minutes, prepared to affront the enemy. This genial invention discouraged the enemy from continuing their attempts, and in this way the weak point represented by the coastal railway track, exposed to the enemy's attacks, was converted into an efficient defence of the coast itself.

At the same time the Italian navy overcame the strategic difficulties and became undisputed mistress of the Adriatic, by means of light cruiser patrols and scouts, formidable permanent defences in the most dangerous spots, and continual acts of aggression along the enemy's coast. Proof of this was given when the Serbians, after their crushing defeat, took refuge in Albania, and from thence

the ragged but glorious remnant of that valiant race was brought safely away by the Italian fleet, with the help of a few French and English boats. This tremendous undertaking lasted for two months, and more than 200,000 troops and civilians, besides horses, artillery and household goods, were transported across the Adriatic and the Mediterranean. The task of protecting these numerous convoys from submarines and unexpected attacks of torpedo boats, the provisioning, embarking and disembarking of men and material with no serious incident, is doubtless the heaviest job that any navy had till then undertaken, and it called forth unstinted praise from experts. Some 500 journeys were made in convoys of 20, 25 to 30 boats at a time, and 19 attacks from submarines were repulsed without a single ship being struck.

This result was arrived at, by establishing at Valona on the Eastern shore an important naval base; but, as Albania has no resources, everything had to be installed there: men, artillery, mines, pontoons, provisions, combustibles, ammunition etc.

A second and equally admirable effort was made by repeated attempts to lure the enemy out of his secure refuges. Small naval units continually scoured the gulfs and channels of the Dalmatian archipelago, audaciously offered themselves as targets to draw the enemy's fire, and thus discover their guns. Light-houses, semafores, barracks were bombarded, submarine cables continually cut, mine fields sown in the enemy's most frequented waterways. Durazzo was five times bombarded; a torpedo boat dared to enter the Istrian port of Pirano, another at Parenzo, even Pola's grim port was not immune.

Lieutenant Ildebrando Goiran, with four sailors in a *Mas* (little motor boat) on the night of Nov. 1-2-1916 penetrated the Fasan channel and fired two torpedoes against a big warship anchored in the outer road-stead.

A few weeks later Commander Rizzo, with two motor boats, at night, broke through the harbour chains and defences of the port of Muggia near Trieste, and sank the cruiser *Wien*.

On Feb. 10, 1917 Commander Ciano, accompanied by Commander Rizzo, struck another blow at the foe, penetrating the port

of Buccari near Fiume, where they torpedoed some merchant boats requisitioned for the War.

On another occasion Mario Pellegrini and three companions on a specially constructed marine tank, entered Pola, after overcoming unheard of difficulties, but were discovered whilst passing over the fourth line of boom defences. Fortune did not favour the brave on this occasion for Pellegrini, unable to attain his object, sunk his boat and was captured. The moral victory was however immense, showing that to daring spirits no system of defence is a hindrance.

Some days later Rizzo performed a magnificent feat worthy of everlasting remembrance. In the channel of Premuda, with two small motor launches, he attacked a large Austrian squadron, which was probably preparing for a raid in the Italian waters. To see and to attack was synonymous: courageously insinuating himself among the torpedo destroyers, which escorted the men of war, Rizzo torpedoed one of the two *dreadnoughts* — the *Santo Stefano* — and hastily retiring seriously damaged one of the torpedo boats which followed him:

All these undertakings were deeply studied and planned with all the naval science of the Italian admirals, to whom is entrusted the command of the Italian Fleet, some of whom did not disdain to accompany the daring raiders to the outer limits of the enemy's defence, assisting and awaiting the results of the undertaking with beating and anxious hearts.

The maritime war has ended with another heroic feat. Two officers, the naval constructor Rossetti, and D.r Paolucci, medical officer in the Navy, penetrated into the Port of Pola, and, during the night of October 31st, by means of a most ingenious machine invented by them, succeeded in blowing up the Flag Ship *Viribus Unitis*, at the imminent risk of their life.

To these individual raids which struck mortal blows at the Austrian navy, must be added the recent enterprise at Durazzo, when part of the Italian fleet, assisted by some English ships and some submarines chasers of the U. S. A., in a few hours destroyed all the formidable fortifications of that port, without any interference from the

enemy. In this manner the way was cleared for the complete conquest of Albania, which was carried out by the Allied troops.

Nor must we omit the work of the naval air service, which with air-ships and seaplanes did such good work bombarding the enemy's ports and defending Italian coasts; the ceaseless protection accorded to merchant convoys bringing goods, food, coal and ammunition from America and England, and the excellent service rendered by the battalions of marines on land, especially on the Piave.

From all this it is obvious that, in spite of the strategical superiority that geographical conditions gave to Austria, Italy has been able to paralyse the enemy's efforts, and, owing to the initiative-spirit of her admirals and officers, the discipline, perseverance for work, and splendid bravery of her sailors, to assume and retain a tangible and undeniable supremacy.

So that with good reason the Head of the Staff nearly wrote in his Order of the day: — • From the first day to the last, you have persevered in a struggle without respite, supplementing the want of efficient means, and

the burden of the too many tasks, with a vigour and audacity that, as time went on, was ever more ready and strong. All Italians are acquainted with the names of each separate hero, and of the crushing victories, but the silent, hard and generous work carried out every hour, and on every occasion, when only an absolute sense of duty could overcome the inequality of the conditions and the terrible difficulties of the obstacles, all these are not known to all ».

Italy's Industrial Efforts.

Before the War, Italian industry was but little developed: competition from abroad prevented it from coming to the fore. Italians themselves preferred the motors, machines and other products that were imported; and this was a serious matter as regards war material, which Italy imported from other countries, especially Germany. Not that good industrial firms were wanting, which struggling against infinite difficulties had succeeded in obtaining an important place in Italy and abroad, but their spirit of enterprise was

hindered by obstacles of every kind. They can however boast of having prepared the ground in such a way that Italian industry could respond in the day of trial with admirable energy to the appeal of the Government, and draw up a programme of labour and production that may even appear miraculous.

The War, which everywhere obliged the manufacturers to change from beginning to end their system of labour and of production, imposed a most arduous task on Italians. For many products it was necessary to run up new buildings as workshops, and to construct new machinery; but all this was done with unforeseen rapidity. In the brief space of a few weeks the factories were fitted up and ready to produce tens of thousands of shells daily, hundreds of cannon and bombs a month; chemical laboratories were set up for producing explosives, whilst the different firms for woven goods manufactured linen and cloth for millions of soldiers.

Under the vigilant assiduity of the different Committees for Industrial mobilisation, constituted under the direction and inspection of the Arms and Munitions Office raised

later on to a Ministry, thousands of new establishments, big and little, sprang up out of nothing; thousands and thousands were radically changed.

The production of war material before the world-war just ended was made over almost exclusively to about sixty military establishments, which worked on the States account without any other intervention.

By instituting Regional Committees, the State wished to employ private industry with manufactures of their own under the name of "Auxiliaries," and so, in this way, left them more freedom for enterprise.

Whilst the State establishments increased almost imperceptibly in number (they were only 66 in October, 1918), the number of the Auxiliaries instead increased at a notable rate, so much so that during even the first year (end of 1916) they amounted to nearly one thousand, besides the 1200 non-auxiliary, but directly attached to the State ammunition works. On June 30, 1917 the auxiliary establishments reached the figure of 1460; in 1918 they had lately increased to the number of 1976. Of these,

more than 200 were metallurgical; 570 ship-building-yards and manufactures of arms, shells and all instruments and tools requiring great precision in their making; 35 laboratories for explosives; 30 establishments dedicated entirely to the manufactory of aircraft, which has assumed exceptional importance in Italy for the building of Caproni, the great fighting planes, so successful in attacking in war. There are about 250 establishments, subsidiary to the logistical services (the textile, shoe-making, and food industries); about 650 were dedicated to working the mines, chemical and electrical works, and about 250 to agriculture and other industries.

The same upward movement had taken place naturally in the corporations of workmen and tradesmen, the total number of which did not exceed 100.000 in October 1915, whilst on October 1, 1918 they amounted to 610.000, besides the 187.000 workmen employed in the non-auxiliary, but dependent on the State defence works. The women employed in the factories were barely 12.000 in 1915; a good 146.000 in 1918.

About 9000 prisoners of war and 5000 colonial workmen were also utilised for this work. Notwithstanding that 26 classes of conscripts were called to arms, the number of workmen exonerated from serving in the army did not exceed the fourth part of the total corporations of workmen and tradesmen. Out of 610.500 individuals, 240.000 are of the middle classes, 116.000 being women; and it must be noted that these figures do not include, except to a small degree, the industry in textile goods, leather, and the manufacture of equipment; nor the food industries, or agriculture, from which the logistical services of the army draw life and nourishment.

Consequently whilst those called to arms were fighting heroically in the first line, and the older men insured the perfect working at the rear, the army of factory workers was rapidly organised and went on constantly increasing in number, more and more.

Seven schools were instituted for the professional instruction of the new corporations of workmen and tradesmen, that sent out about 2000 lathe-turners a month.

As regards the amount of material pro-

duced, a few proportional facts will suffice to give an idea of the enormous efforts accomplished.

For guns and rifles, the making of which was nearly all entirely in the hands of the State military factories, the production of the year 1915 was doubled in May 1916, quintupled in May 1917. The same may be said of the cannon, the production of which was doubled during the first half of 1916 and rose further in 1917.

The bombs for the trenches, a weapon of Italian invention, and that has been employed with success on the other fronts, also were produced in constantly increasing numbers. It was not until January 1916 that the bombing corps was instituted, and an official programme drawn up, which, in July, was nearly entirely carried out. The quantity of bombs made in March 1916 was almost quadruplicated in December of the same year, sextuplicated in June 1917.

The same increase may be noted in shells. The production of those of small caliber was sextuplicated from June 1915 to June 1916, but remained stationary however at this

maximum, because it was desirable instead to intensify the production of shells of medium and big caliber; as regards which, suffice it to say that in June 1917 the production was already ten times that of two years before for those of big caliber, and five times for those of medium.

The production of bombs for the trenches, of different sized caliber, was intensified in proportion to that of the artillery projectiles. The former was increased to seven times as much between April and September 1916, and increased to eleven times as much in the following nine months.

A separate indication must be made with regard to the working of the mines. The absolute absence of any kind of coal in Italy, and the scarcity of other fossil combustibles, was a source of great inconvenience and discomfort for the whole nation, be it either as regards the few trains that were run, and the excessive high charges for transport by railway, or the excessively reduced means for warming and lighting public offices or private houses, so as to leave as much as possible of the coal that was imported to

be used for the munition works, as unhappily the supply of coal, that had greatly diminished in 1914-16, was reduced during the last two years to half the normal quantity.

As a substitute, and subsidiary to it, large use was made of wood and charcoal, to supply which many splendid forests were decimated, whilst the mines of lignite, and the fields of peat, were feverishly exploited, as they had never been before. The production of lignite, which in 1914 had been 700.000 tons, rose to 953.000 in 1915, to more than a million in 1916, and to one million 700.000 tons in 1917. The number of mines worked rose from 63 to about 300.

Legislative facilities, and the concentration of various energies and efforts, considerably augmented in the meanwhile the utilisation of electric motor-power derived from water for industrial purposes, so much so that the concession granted in 1917 amounted to a total of 200.000 horse-power, against 31.000 horse-power granted to 129 employers of the preceding financial years, and against 52.000 granted to 128 employers in the years 1914-15. Other 218 requests for about

730.000 horse-power were in course of examination at the end of 1917.

Another serious problem was that of iron, because Italy did not even produce what would have been enough of this metal for her own requirements; but was seized in the throes of war at a moment in which the technical authorities expressed their belief that the celebrated iron supply in Elba would soon be exhausted.

Happily these prognostications proved erroneous and Italy's grand old iron mountain (as in fact part of the mount in Elba is nearly pure iron) to which the produce of several other mines were added, discovered recently in Sardinia and Val'd'Aosta, allowed of the exploitation of iron from 600.000 to almost 1.000.000 tons every year during the War.

Italy moreover was able to make further valuable contributions to the Allies, for the common victory, with other minerals. The extraction of pyrites, necessary for making sulphuric acid, was greatly increased, as this is the foundation of every industry, either in peace or in war. This production, that had already been augmented, went up at the end

of the four years 1914-17 from 335.000 to more than 500.000 tons annually, so much so that the amount exported into France was gradually increased from 67 to more than 170.000 tons.

Mercury, large quantities of which were already exported from Italy even before the War, was placed at the disposition of the Allies for manufacturing explosives; during the four years 1914-17 the quantity exported annually (chiefly into England and France) rose from 700 to more than 11150 tons; and the monetary value, formerly of 4 million lire, has increased to almost 13 million lire.

Chloride of potash also, that has only recently been discovered in the Eritrean colony, was sent to Italy, France and England, and even to Japan in thousands of tons, always for explosives.

The increased demand for talc and steatite and the substitution of these and other materials in some of the industries, such as the manufacture of paper, caused a remarkable increase, during the War, in the excavation of these two minerals, that rose to 27.500 tons in the year 1916, to 90.000 in 1917,

and Italy was thus able to meet the constantly increasing demands sent from England, France, America and Egypt.

The production of caolin was also at the same time augmented, to such a degree that it was doubled: as it rose from 12,000 to 25,000 tons a year. The excavation also of fire-proof minerals was largely augmented, so necessary for the siderurgical industry, and for which Italy had been in part an importer from abroad, especially from Austria. The discovery of new beds and their most active, careful working augmented the produce of *giobertite* from 600 to 18 thousand tons.

The rich mines of antimony and manganese have been much more exploited; whilst indefatigable research has discovered minerals of chromus, molibdene and others.

All this has been successfully carried out notwithstanding all the delay and obstacles of every kind that were continually presenting themselves, such as the carriage that was rendered difficult, expensive and slow; the substitution of skilled workmen with improvised workmen and even with women; for the rationing of the explosives and combustibles;

obstacles that required all the constancy and perennial efforts and concord that the directors and workmen could give.

Italy then in the industrial field put herself in the condition for providing for her own requirements for the War, and also to offer help to her Allies, in exchange of the aid they in their turn gave her.

But figures cannot express the faith and enthusiasm with which the Italians—often accused of scepticism by those who know them only superficially—rose up like one man, and threw themselves into the thickest of the fight, driven in the greatest part by idealistic reasons, giving, not only the blood of their youngest and strongest sons, but the untiring work of the aged, the women and children. The entire population accepted, quite willingly, all the sacrifices (far more burdensome than those imposed upon the other Allies) as regards food, heating light and traffic; sacrifices rendered inevitable precisely on account of the special conditions in which Italy found herself on account of her poverty, and the crisis in all her normal industries converted into war industries.

Figures cannot tell the strong and resolute decision with which this people, easily given to enthusiasm and despair, braced itself up in the day of misfortune, concentrating all its efforts in work, whilst waiting for the rivendication that was sure to come; the discipline with which it formed—the men at the front and the workmen—one army only; the feverish activity with which Italians, whom strangers often deride, as lovers of the *dolce far niente*, were capable of indefatigably organising, each one his work, so as to obtain the victory.

This energy and capacity for organising, in great part latent, and unknown to strangers and to the Italians themselves, revealed to us by the admirable results obtained, can but induce us to hope for a very successful to-morrow. The really sublime efforts made by Italy have, in fact, co-operated to a great extent in sowing, on ground rendered fruitful, the germs of an Italian industrial conscience.

The turnover of the industries from a peace to a war basis increased, strengthened, and rendered conscious of what they could do in these superhuman efforts, will provide the

country with many of those products that were wanting before and that Italy has hitherto been forced to seek abroad.

The great Italian war will not only have accomplished the longed for national independence with all Italy's hitherto unredeemed sons reunited to the mother-Country, but will have greatly contributed towards the economic independence of the country and be the guarantee for a peaceful and happy settling in the future.

WHAT ITALY WILL BECOME

Italy, as we have seen, has accomplished an immense effort, on land and sea, obtaining magnificent results for which it would perhaps have been too bold to hope at the outbreak of hostilities. No one will ever be able fully to describe the effort made by the country, both before and after the Austrian invasion, the sufferings heroically borne in silence, the privations, the pain and the injuries endured. Let us no take into account the four invaded provinces, where Germans, Austrians, Croats, and Hungarians committed heinous devastations, destroying houses in order to obtain iron or fire-wood, and robbing palaces or humble huts of all their furniture, linen and clothes in order to send the booty to their families in Berlin, Vienna, Zagabria, or Budapest; neither take account of the systematic spoliation of the inhabitants, compelled to live on a handful of grass, like animals, because the cattle, grain and provisions of

every kind were confiscated by the invaders; nor take into account the violation of the women's honour, the cruelties against prisoners, who were forced to work in the first lines of the trenches under the murderous fire of the artillery of the Allies. All this is horrible, is unworthy of a civilized people and cries for vengeance; but in substance this is war, is the consequence of war against a people, who, whilst usurping the title of civilized, reveal themselves as barbarians.

We do not even wish to dwell long upon on the grave material injury suffered by cities on the coast, which were exposed to continual bombardment from the light cruisers of the enemy, as well as air attacks. Venice, Ravenna, Rimini, Ancona, Naples, Bari and Brindisi, to recall only the principal localities, from May 1915 until the first half of 1918, suffered an infinite number of attacks, with grave loss of life (women and children especially), and serious injury to public and private edifices, to works of art, to the precious records of the past. Not only the coast towns, but also the Venetian cities nearest to the Front: Padua and Treviso in the first line, then Verona and

Vicenza, Bassano, Mestre, Schio and Thiene, suffered innumerable air attacks, had hundreds and hundreds of victims among the civil population, saw magnificent monuments, (as for example, the great Basilica of Sant'Antonio and the Municipal Museum of Padua), injured by bombs. All this is unjustifiable, because Italy has never attacked open, undefended cities, but it is the natural consequence of the brutally ferocious character of the enemy.

Let us not take into account even the considerable number of merchant ships, loaded with precious and indispensable goods, which were sent to the bottom by the perfidious submarine campaign, destroying immense capital and foodstuffs destined for the civil population.

What foreigners, who have not lived in Italy during these years, can hardly understand, is the suffering of the whole Italian people from the Alps to Sicily, in large cities and in humble villages, caused in the last two years by the scarcity of food, combustibles, materials, leather, and all the necessities of life.

Italy (who before the war did not produce all that was indispensable to the feeding of her people) having closed to her various markets because they were situated in enemy countries, others, such as those of the Black Sea, because the means of access to them was barred; and receiving less than usual of many goods owing to losses by submarines and the scarcity of tonnage, found herself in disastrous conditions. The Italian people, if they have not actually suffered hunger, have been obliged to impose upon themselves a grave series of limitations and privations; they have passed days in a terrible uncertainty for the morrow and eaten bread composed of most varied ingredients and limited in quantity; the consumption of meat has been reduced by 90 %; they have been deprived of butter, oil, cheese, milk and sugar; had the quantity of macaroni, rice, salt fish and eggs restricted, and suffered from the cold of winter. Notwithstanding they never murmured; enduring courageously all privations, awaiting full of confidence the day of triumph.

These immense sacrifices are as nothing in comparison with the appalling expense of

the war; the many milliards of loans made at home and abroad, the interest alone of which has brought about and will bring in the future a notable increase of taxation.

It is only reasonable then that for the work, which Italy has done for the cause of civilisation and justice, spontaneously and without being obliged to do it, she should be compensated in proportion to the services rendered to the common cause, to the burdens she has borne and the losses she has suffered.

Italy however has no ambitious aims of dominion: she asks only to be allowed to live in peace, to be able to develop in peace her energies, which have only now come into the light of day; to reestablish her finances by strenuous labour; to be able freely to produce in the industrial field in free competition with other great nations; to intensify the work of reclaiming her lands, to improve the education and culture of her sons, who are struggling against two grave drawbacks, illiteracy and emigration.

This is a programme of honest work, which her leaders have courageously laid down and already initiated. But in order to attain this

aim certain conditions are necessary and indispensable; above all, one is essential, the security of her frontiers by sea and land against every possible danger, near or remote.

It is not possible for a great people, such as the Italians are to-day, to turn all their attention and all their efforts to internal improvements, if on her confines thick clouds are allowed to threaten her security.

It is therefore necessary that Italy should have assigned to her such frontier lines as can be easily defended, that protect the door of her house against every possible act of violence, and assure her against any renewal of offensive on the part of her traditional enemy, or of any heir of his.

For this reason it is desirable, even indispensable, that the land frontiers should coincide with the natural frontiers, which are marked by the line of the Rhaetian Alps, as far as the sources of the Adige and the Isargo, and the line of the Julian Alps as far as the Gulf of Quarnaro. If within these limits, together with a great majority who are Italian in language, education and sentiments, will be included certain nuclei of other races,

German or Slav, which have found their way during the course of centuries among the Latin population, this would not be a violation of the great principles of liberty and nationality, in the name of which the war against the Austro-German coalition was waged; but must be considered as one of those numerous, almost infinite attenuations of principles, which cannot be rigid or rigidly applied when so many and such varied elements contribute to a single final result, the future peace of the world.

Indeed, if these principles were to be inflexibly insisted upon, neither would France be able to exercise undisturbed her authority over the whole of Alsace-Lorraine, where, even without giving great weight to the statistics published by the German Government, great nuclei of German populations exist; nor would England be able to continue to occupy important strategic points in the Mediterranean. It will certainly be necessary that to these nuclei of population of another race, in Italy as elsewhere, guarantees of full liberty should be assured, which will prevent the repetition of those tyrannies, violences

and those injuries to rights, for which the Germans in Lorraine and in the Polish territories, and the Austrians in the Trentino, at Trieste, in Dalmatia and at Gorizia, have made themselves deplorably famous. These guarantees, Italy, as well as France, will give on a large scale; because it is her boast and her glory to have always been, to be especially to-day, an essentially civilized nation, inspired by a chivalrous spirit, by a just appreciation of the rights of others, as of her own rights; a nation, in fact, which is justly proud of the noble Roman traditions and of the marine republics of the Middle Ages.

To live and let live beneath the shade of one's own banner: this is the political programme of Italy.

The same must be said with regard to the sea frontiers, which implies the study of the problem of the Adriatic. How iniquitous and how terrible were the conditions of the Italian navy in the Adriatic before and during the present war, we have already seen elsewhere. The coast cities of Italy still bear the marks of the attacks, which the enemy made

from his safe refuges in the eastern Adriatic and even those ignorant of naval warfare must realise that the results obtained by Italy during 42 months of naval warfare can only be explained by the prodigies of energy, ability, constancy and sacrifice, of which the Italian Navy has given proof.

It is necessary, however, that such a state of inferiority should cease, now that the traditional enemy is vanquished; that Venice, Ravenna, Ancona, Bari, Brindisi and Otranto should be guaranteed against every possible surprise; and therefore it is essential that to Italy should be assigned on the eastern shore of the Adriatic such strategic points as will prevent the repetition of a state of things, as sad and dangerous as can be imagined.

The breaking up of the Austro-Hungarian Empire in consequence of the Italian victories has brought about the rise in the Adriatic of a new Power, which, it is announced, will be constituted by the reunion of groups of peoples of the same race, but of a nationality until now different. The groups of Croats, Slovenes, Bosnians, Herzegovians, Monte-

negrins and Serbs, who have never had until now the same nationality, are tending towards union in a single State (it is not known yet whether federative or unitarian), which, gathering together the Slav peoples of the south, would have its territorial base in the Balkan peninsula and would tend to have a large outlet on the Adriatic.

Historically and ethnographically this desire is legitimate, because already in the past ages the ancient States of Croatia and Serbia had outlets on the sea; and numerous populations of southern Slavs are settled along the Dalmatian coast and islands, from the Gulf of Quarnero as far as Albania.

Nor does Italy desire to deny to the Slavs of the south this right; she has always been in favour of it. But this people, or rather this group of peoples, has shown, as far as the Croatians are concerned, a spirit so aggressive, so hostile to Italy and to the Italian element established for centuries in Dalmatia, has even recently by writing, by words and public acts revealed an intolerance of the liberty of others, a violence, and astuteness and an obvious want of restraint, which has

greatly alarmed Italian public opinion. It is not inopportune to remember that among these peoples there are elements, to-day among the most violent, who in the war on land and sea have been the most hostile to Italy, the most ferocious, the most inhuman. It is not inopportune to remember that even recently the men, who govern in the Capital of Croatia, lent themselves to the dirty action of the dying Austrian Empire, which, while it agreed by the armistice of Padua to consign its fleet to Italy, contemporaneously ceded it to the Croats. Nor can the very recent violences against the Italians of Fiume, of Spalato and of Cattaro be forgotten; nor the publication of pamphlets, prophesying Slav dominion over Istria, over the supremely Italian Trieste, even over part of the province of Udine.

These symptoms of aversion, founded on race hatred and far-reaching violence, certainly do not foretell a pacific and tranquil period of political life in the Adriatic.

It is therefore necessary for future safety, for that world peace desired by all, that Italy should protect herself by occupying on

the shore of the eastern Adriatic those strategic points, with the corresponding necessary hinterland, which will be recognized as necessary to the safety of the nation. There are, in addition, cities which still bear the impress, the venerated imprints of Rome; there are cities and ports which for centuries and centuries enjoyed the mild government of Venice; where, notwithstanding every ancient and recent violence, the population remained and is, in its great majority, Italian in language, heart, hope and affection; where, in fact, the Slavs, if they are in the majority in the country districts, are on a level of civilisation much lower than that of the Italian population. •

Let the Slavs live freely on the Adriatic coast, prosper and flourish there by their commerce and industries; but leave to Italy those points, chiefly inhabited by Italian majorities, which guarantee them from unexpected attempts on the part of a race still young as regards politics, and animated, as often happens to those who are just born to liberty, by a spirit of great intolerance for the liberty of others.

This is not imperialism, it is the legitimate protection of the high interests of national safety. The peoples who have fought at Italy's side, who have witnessed her sacrifices and her generous efforts, have every interest in assisting Italy to obtain her legitimate, honest, limited desires.

APPENDIX

THE GOVERNMENT OF ITALY

Italy is one of the most democratic countries in Europe. The Government is a Constitutional Monarchy. The Monarchy is the result of plebiscites, that is, it has been freely accepted and willed by the people of the different regions who in 1859, in 1860, in 1866 and in 1870 expressed their desire to form part of the States of Victor Emmanuel II.

The Constitution is the same which King Charles Albert of Savoy spontaneously gave to his subjects in March 1848.

The executive power is exercised by the King through his Ministers, who are responsible: and the House of Savoy has always chosen the Ministers from the parliamentary majority.

The legislative power is entrusted to two Houses: that of the Deputies, elected now by an almost universal suffrage, all male citizens of over twenty one years of age

being electors: and that of the Senators, nominated by the King for life from categories of persons distinguished in public offices, for talent or for services rendered to the State.

The judicial power is entrusted to magistrates, nominated through public competition, and generally irremovable, that is, independent of the executive power.

Two great bodies of the State, the Court of Accounts and the Council of State, undertake, the one to prevent the waste of public money and to guard the administration and the respect of the laws and regulations, the other to counsel the Government and to watch over the rights of the citizens in their relations with the State.

Lastly, almost all the Ministers are assisted by *Higher Councils*, composed in great part of elected members, who ensure the regularity of the nominations or prepare the reforms and the laws to be presented to Parliament.

The administration of the different communes of the realm is independent of the State: every commune elects its own *communal*

council, which in its turn elects its head, or *Mayor*, and the members of the *communal Committee*, who administer all local affairs. The deliberations of the *committee* and *council* are subject to the control of the State, which exercises it by means of the Prefects, who represent the executive power in every province, and of the *provincial administrative committees*.

The administration of the provinces is also autonomous: the citizens of each province elect their representatives: the *provincial committee* thus formed chooses from among its members a *provincial deputation*, which exercises the executive power in certain directions.

Italy had also a National Guard; but this guarantee of the citizens against the tyranny of the executive power was abolished many years ago, because experience proved that it was not necessary.

The Ministers, that is the members of the executive power, who preside over the different administrations of the kingdom, were, before the war, eleven in number.

That is to say: the Minister of the Interior, who undertakes the internal guidance

of the State and the administration, of the police, the public health etc.

The Minister of Foreign Affairs, under whom are the Ambassadors, the Consuls and the commercial representatives of the kingdom abroad.

The Minister of Grazia, Justice and Religion, who superintends the judicial administration and the confirmation of the appointments of bishops and parish priests, as ordered by law.

The Minister of Public Instruction, who has charge of almost all the schools in the Kingdom, the libraries, museums and galleries, and who superintends the Fine Arts.

The Minister of Agriculture, Commerce and Industry.

The Finance Minister, who undertakes the collection of the taxes, Customs duties and other imposts.

The Minister of the Treasury, who administers the patrimony of the State.

The Minister of Posts, Telegraphs and Telephones, to whom is entrusted the supreme direction of these means of communication.

The Minister of Public Works, who superintends the roads, the water supply and the maintenance of public edifices. In the past this Minister had also charge of the railways, which now however form a special Ministry of Transports.

Finally, the Ministers of War and of the Navy, who have charge of the army, the navy, the military and naval schools, the fortifications, naval constructions etc.

The war rendered necessary other grouping; therefore ministries for provisions, for arms and munitions and others have been created.

RELIGION

The great majority of Italians belong to the Roman Catholic Church and acknowledge as the supreme head of their religion the Pope, who is the successor of the ancient bishops of Rome.

The Pope, according to the Law of Guarantees, voted by the Italian Parliament in 1871 after the reunion of Rome to Italy, is perfectly independent of the civil power, enjoys sovereign honours and privileges, and can have Ambassadors from foreign powers and send his representatives to foreign States. In the exercise of his religious functions in Italy he is freer than in all the other catholic States, having the right to choose, and nominate almost all the bishops of the Italian dioceses. The latter, however, in order to receive their stipends, must obtain the *placet*, that is the approval of the Government.

From 1870 onwards, deprived of the Temporal Power, which it had possessed for several centuries, though not without interruption, the Papacy has been unable to resign itself to accomplished facts and has continued to protest and to nourish hopes of a total or partial restoration.

For this reason the Pope lives shut up in his palace of the Vatican, abstaining from going out in public, and from celebrating with open doors catholic rites in the Basilica of St. Peter, and refuses the yearly financial allowance voted by Parliament. He celebrates the rites of the Church in the Vatican chapels or in the church of St. Peter, admitting those who wish to take part by tickets of invitation; he receives visitors who come to pay him homage from all parts of the world; he receives, as a Sovereign, foreign Princes and diplomatists; he has a Court of prelates and laymen, and small bodies of armed men, among them a Swiss Guard of mercenary soldiers. In one word, the Vatican is a little State within Rome, having diplomatic ministers and soldiers, and tiny frontiers which are inviolable and inviolate.

Besides the Roman Catholics, there are in Italy several thousand Jews, and a small number of Protestants, scattered throughout the different cities of the Kingdom: some of the latter however are grouped in the alpine valleys near Pinerolo: they are the descendants of the ancient Waldensians; all are perfectly free to exercise their own form of religion.

THE ARMY AND NAVY

Italy even in days of peace, following the example which had been set her by Piedmont, had made military service on land and sea obligatory for all her able-bodied citizens.

All the young men on reaching the age of 20, who were medically certified as sound and fit to serve their country, were divided into three categories. In the first were classed the majority called on to serve the colours for at least two years; into the second were gathered only sons, even though their fathers were not aged, and those who already had several brothers under arms; they served only three months; in the third class, called up only for a short training, were grouped the only sons of widows, or of aged fathers, and others in similar conditions. Dismissed at the end of their training, classes 1 and 2 were bound to present themselves whenever called upon up to the age of 32, then passing into the *territorial militia*, where, with

the youths of class 3, they remained until reaching 39, liable to serve, not on the battle-field, but their Country, if the necessity should arise.

In time of peace the Italian army only numbered 250,000 men; when all classes were called up for war and the territorial militia was mobilised, it was calculated that it might reach three million. - The war has altered all these arrangements, for even men of 46 have been called up.

There were about 14,000 officers in the regular army, an equal number or rather more were at home or in civil employment ready to be called up.

The Italian army was divided in peace time into twelve army corps, stationed at Turin, Alessandria, Milan, Genoa, Verona, Bologna, Florence, Ancona, Rome, Naples, Bari and Palermo, each including a territory of about equal extent. Sardinia depended from the army corps of Rome. Each army corps contained two divisions, composed of four infantry regiments, of one regiment of field artillery, of one body of light infantry (*Bersaglieri*) and of the necessary cavalry, be-

sides engineers and those assigned to special services.

The army corps to which was entrusted the custody of the mountain frontiers towards France, Switzerland and Austria included special troops, recruited from among the inhabitants of the mountain valleys (*Alpini*) trained to special mountain manœuvres.

The Carabiniers also form part of the army, and are specially used for internal police work, and military policing. The coast-guards to the repression of smuggling in peace time added during the Libyan war and the present conflict the functions of a combatant force.

In addition, Italy, as a colonial power, has troops of coloured militia, not very numerous, but brave and faithful. The Ascars of Erytrea deserve special mention; their courage and tenacity were highly praised during the Libyan war.

The officers of the Italian regular army were drawn in peace time from among young men, who had completed their secondary studies; they received a period of instruction of about two years at the military

college of Modena for the Line, and at the military college of Turin for the artillery and engineers; then followed a short period of advanced training at Parma for infantry, at Pinerolo for cavalry and at Turin for the artillery and engineers. For the Staff Corps there was a special course which was taken at Turin after many years of service by those who were judged most suitable after a competitive examination. Non-commissioned officers could also obtain a commission after a certain period of service and a special course of instruction, generally given at Caserta.

Complementary or temporary officers were those who, having certificates of study, after a year's military service as privates passed a qualifying examination. They acted as officers for three months, then returned home; but were recalled from time to time, either for instruction, or as required. Their number on the eve of war was about 13,000, almost all subalterns; while in the higher ranks were about 3000 officers who, having already done a certain number of years' service, had returned home (auxilliary

position) without, however, being inscribed in the Reserve.

The men of the Royal Navy are recruited from among sea-faring people and the inhabitants of the sea-board. Service is obligatory for four years; as in the army, those are inscribed in special categories who for family conditions or other reasons are exempted from regular service. Every year's levy gave an average of 7500 men, so that, including the men who voluntarily renewed their term of service, the naval ratings (the Royal Crews to use the Italian expression) amounted before the war to about 38.000 men; to whom may also be added all those recalled to the service from 25 to 40 years of age, until the figure of 75.000 men was reached.

Sailors are divided into categories: Able seamen, gunners, armourers, stokers, electricians, carpenters, and those employed for administration, and so forth.

All Naval officers as well as the engine-room officers are chosen from among the young men, who after a public competitive examination gained admittance into the Naval College of Leghorn: they then become cadets

and undergo a preparatory course for several years, alternating study with navigation. Then as sub-lieutenants they must attend an advanced course, which is also given at the College of Leghorn. The naval engineers are usually recruited by competition from among civil engineers, and those who come from the naval school of Genoa. For the warrant officers employed in the engine-room, there is a special school at Venice. In 1914 the officers in the service numbered about 1900; when those on the retired list were recalled, one reaches the number of 2700 officers: to whom must be added the officers taken from the Merchant Service and from accelerated courses.

The warships in Italy, before the outbreak of hostilities, were the following: 23 battle ships, over 9000 tons, dreadnoughts, armoured cruisers, battle cruisers (of these some still in the docks under construction); 28 second class battleships, protected cruisers, explorers, etc.; 40 destroyers, a hundred torpedo boats, a few submarines and about forty ships of various kinds (mine layers, coaling ships, etc.). Besides these the

Navy had the right to requisition a certain number of auxiliary cruisers, taken from the Merchant Service and also other ships for the transport of troops and material.

During the war many other battleships were built and armed.

The naval forces and the officers were divided in three maritime Departments, those of Spezia, Naples and Venice, to which may be added the two maritime military Commands of Taranto and of the Maddalena. During the war a fourth Department was instituted at Taranto and another Military Command at Brindisi.

The Commands of Coastal defence were also increased.

The operations of the maritime levy are carried out in the Port Captaincies, established in the principal seaports; from these offices depend also all the personnel of the merchant marine, the police and the management of the ports.

ITALIAN SCHOOLS

Italy is unfortunately one of the countries of Europe where the number of illiterates is great. This phenomenon is in part the consequence of foreign misgovernment, in part of unfortunate economic conditions, and partly due to the distribution of the population, scattered in some provinces over the country and the mountains and not gathered into inhabited centres. Efforts have been made to remedy this drawback, both by considerably augmenting the number of boys' schools and by instituting many evening and holiday schools for adults, and by establishing penalties for the parents who neglect to send their children to school, thus depriving them of various political and civil advantages; also by encouraging the attendance of the children at school by distributing gratis, clothes, shoes and food. The men called to the colours have greatly benefited by the regimental schools.

The State has taken to itself the great part

of the elementary schools already existing, and has multiplied them, increasing also the number of the teachers and improving their position. The law which in many States forbids the entrance of emigrants, who cannot read and write, has also done much for the spread of education. To-day illiteracy, a shameful defect, is in continual decrease and it is to be hoped that it will shortly be completely eradicated; although the number is still very high.

Secondary education is very extended in Italy. The State maintains a large number of classical schools with an 8 year course, where, besides languages, literature and national history, Latin, Greek, mathematics and science are taught; and a still larger number of technical schools and institutes, in which the scientific side and modern languages prevail to the exclusion of dead languages.

It is calculated that in each of the 69 provinces of the kingdom at least two of these complete institutes exists, with an eight or seven year course; but there are provinces where a much larger number are to be found.

There are also schools for training the teachers. In addition to this, special institutions for preparing for the army, or for industry, commerce, or commercial navigation have greatly increased, as have professional schools, while military colleges and schools for officers of the various arms and for specialists on land and sea exist, as also schools for non-commis-sioned officers, etc.

There are in addition, under Government inspection, private elementary and secondary schools, some of them kept by members of religious orders of both sexes, who at one time had in their hands all or nearly all the training and education of youth.

Superior education is given in the Uni-versi-ties and other special institutions. In the Universities young men are prepared for the professions of medecine, law, pharmacology, as actuaries and to teach languages, literature and science. In polytechnics and technical high schools theoretical engineering is taught; in the upper commercial schools young men are prepared for good positions in banks, and for the consular Agencies etc. Finally in the Conservatories and Academies of Fine Arts

youths are trained in music, painting, sculpture and architecture.

The Universities are very numerous; because each State in old days had one, or more than one, and no one has ever dared to abolish those which are superfluous. The following cities have Universities or similar institutions: Turin, Genoa, Milan, Pavia, Padua, Parma, Modena, Bologna, Florence, Pisa, Siena, Macerata, Rome, Naples, Palermo, Messina, Catania, Cagliari and Sassari; but some of these do not include all the courses. Some Universities exist, which do not belong to the State, and are therefore free; they are to be found in the former States of the Church, at Ferrara, Camerino, Perugia and Urbino, but these also are limited to a few courses.

Altogether the number of the two sexes in the Universities was 30.000 before the war, and 6.500 in other upper schools; those attending the secondary classical schools were about 65.000; those in technical schools and institutions 120.000; those in Teachers' Training Colleges 42 thousand.

The war, calling under arms the greater part of the youth of the country, has depopu-

lated many of these institutions of the masculine element. It may be observed that the young men coming from these schools have brilliantly performed their duty; they became in a very short time excellent officers and have freely spent their blood and their untiring activity for the sacred work of right and justice which now has been brought to completion.

EMIGRATION

The problem of emigration is closely connected with the agricultural condition and is one of the gravest which Italy had to solve before the war.

It is well known that Italy was one of the regions of Europe which contributed the largest number of emigrants. She had, in fact, according to calculations which went back to 1910, about five million and a half of her sons outside her borders, and of these almost four million and a half were in America alone; that is, 1.800.000 in the United States, and 2.450.000 in South America. Keeping in mind that in the five years before the war the number of her citizens who left Italy was over 2.500.000, while those who returned numbered hardly more than a million, one must conclude that the number of emigrants to-day must exceed 7.000.000, so that the total population of Italy reaches 42 million.

This great current of migration, chiefly from less fertile provinces, in which agriculture brings in but little, constitutes (or at least constituted) for Italy a notable injury, a subtraction of force, which is not entirely compensated by the fact that a good part of the emigrants return to the mother country after a certain period bringing with them the savings made by their labour in foreign lands.

It is to be hoped that the new needs created by the war, the expansion of industries, of navigation and of commerce, as well as the great works of reclaiming uncultivated lands, will assure to the whole of the population an amply remunerative employment, and prevent (or at least largely limit) this flow of migration.

INDUSTRIAL ITALY

If Nature has been lavish in her gifts to Italy of beauty, fertility and mildness of climate, she has been very sparing of mineral riches.

There is a great scarcity of minerals in the peninsula: there are no gold mines and very few of silver, while coal, which would be the greatest riches, is entirely wanting. This grave deficiency brings about a notable inferiority in industry, making Italy dependent on the foreign countries which have these precious minerals in abundance. Although the northern part of the peninsula has copious waterfalls which give water power (the so-called White Coal), these natural riches have not yet been worked to their full value. The transport to a distance of the electric current, however, with lines sometimes as long as 300 kilometers, and the considerable augmentation of electric force during the last twenty years before the war

(87.000 kilowatts in 1898, about a million in 1913) prove that in this field much progress has been made.

While other nations, already whole and united, have been able to develope their national industries continuously, Italy, divided during the greater part of the XIX century into many States, and occupied for half a century in the struggle for her national unity, could not dedicate her energies to industry.

After 1870 however, when the national unity might be said to be much advanced, if not complete, a certain development in many branches of industry began to show itself, and rapidly increased during the following thirty years.

In 1871 Italy employed in industry about 800.000 tons of coal; in 1914 she consumed more than ten million, without taking into account the great development of electric energy, due to the water courses, calculated at 900.000 H. P. and produced by no less than 7000 works. Industrial workers in the first years after 1870 were less than 300.000 persons: in the year preceding the war they numbered almost two million of men. Un-

fortunately this working population was not equally distributed; the greatest density was to be found in the northern provinces, and especially in Lombardy, Piedmont and Liguria, while central Italy and still more southern Italy is wanting in industrial workers.

With regard to production, two industries have progressed more than others: metallurgy, which rose from a production of 36 million lire in 1870 to half a milliard in 1911, and the chemical industry which in 1913 produced more than 140 million, while in 1870 one may say that it was non-existent.

The weaving industries above all deserve consideration; Italy before the war produced 5000 tons of silk, of which a part was exported as raw material abroad, but a large part was worked on national looms, of which it was calculated that almost twenty thousand existed, about half of them mechanical. The centre of the silk industry is still in the province of Como; next in order of importance come the provinces of Lombardy, Piedmont, Liguria and Venetia; other establishments are to be found in central Italy;

Caserta in southern Italy holds the first place; Messina in Sicily has still the remains of that great activity in weaving, which made her the emporium for the silk commerce of the Mediterranean.

About 200.000 workers were occupied in the cotton industry, which is only grown to a small extent in Sicily, where the climate is hotter, but about 200.000 tons are imported for the purpose from America. The raw material is spun and woven in Italy. Statistics in 1912 give the considerable number of almost 130.000 looms, the greater part mechanical, concentrated almost entirely in Lombardy and in the neighbouring Piedmont; but there are also cotton factories in Liguria, in Venetia, in Tuscany and in other regions of Italy. It is calculated that the exportation of cotton stuffs and cotton thread before the war produced about 200 million of lire.

The woollen industry, which during the Middle Ages brought Italy great celebrity and riches, also felt a new impulse. 15.000 looms existed in 1913, most of them mechanical, and occupying about 50.000 workers. This industry is concentrated in Pied-

mont, especially in the province of Novara, and in Venetia (province of Vicenza); others are to be found here and there in Tuscany, near Rome and in other small centres of production.

Among the textile industries must not be forgotten those of hemp, flax, and jute. Italy is one of the principal nations producing hemp, but a large part of it is exported as raw material, while almost all the jute is imported from abroad. The spinning and weaving of these products employed in 1917 about 44.000 workers.

Altogether it may be said that the textile industries employ half a million workers; and that the capital invested in them reaches half a milliard lire.

The metal and machine industries constitute another and not less important branch which has had a considerable development.

Italy has some mines of zinc, silver, lead, aluminium and iron, besides abundant mines of sulphur, which form the wealth of Sicily.

Iron is chiefly found in the Island of Elba, off the coast of Tuscany, but now new

strata have been discovered or re-worked in the western Alps and in other parts of the peninsula. With this material and what is imported from abroad, the metal industry produced in the years preceding the war almost 1.000.000 tons of steel, that is, ten times as much as in 1900. In addition, great works for the production of special kinds of steel were founded, which competed with the best steelworks abroad.

In Liguria, at Terni in Umbria, and near Naples, establishments had arisen and were flourishing which produced all kinds of machines, and armour for war-ships, employing 150.000 workers. Now the number of the workers is extraordinarily increased. With them are included other 250.000 workers, employed in mechanical industries properly so-called, as for example, that of automobiles. Pneumatic tyres were exported in 1907 to the value of 200.000 lire, and five years later had risen to the extent of 52 million, without counting the production disposed of in the country itself.

The magnificaqt machinery of electric teleferies, such as those which from Savona

transport coal to the summit of the Apennines; the colossal works of electric traction on the railway line of the Mt. Cenis, of the Simplon, of the Giovi (between Genoa and Novi Ligure), are owing to Italian activity and genius, and show what an industrial transformation will be possible to Italy, as soon as peace renders available workers and capital.

The industries, which produced ten million of quintals of chemical manure, 50,000 tons of carbides and about 10 million of other products have been almost entirely newly created.

The food industries, especially those of sugar, skins, cheese, and preserves have also made notable progress during the last twenty years.

AGRICULTURAL ITALY

Italy is a fertile country in many of her regions, such as the plain of the Po, Tuscany, Umbria, the Marche and some parts of the Neapolitan country; but in other districts the condition of the soil, the want of water, foreign misgovernment and the carelessness and indolence of the old inhabitants have produced a notable impoverishment, or even sterility, unhealthiness and neglect of the land. After the completion of national unity, the activity of the new generations was devoted to repairing the errors and injuries of the past. The work is only beginning, and the actual war, which has withdrawn from the fields so many hands, and which has obliged the women, the old people and the children to take the place of the men, has retarded the development of many agricultural undertakings and suspended those only just begun. Much work has, however, been done to improve cultivation, to reclaim lands which are unhealthy or

covered with water; or to convey to arid lands the necessary irrigation.

The reclaiming of the Tuscan marshes, already begun in the XVIII century, but carried on to-day with perfected mechanical means and with abundant capital has rendered healthy once more a large zone of marshes and land, infested by fever, along the shore between the Canal of Piombino and the port of Civitavecchia. Equally remarkable has been the draining of the Lake of Fucino, carried out by Prince Alexander Torlonia 50 years ago, which brought under cultivation an extended tract which is now extremely rich. From 1862 up to 1906 nearly 600.000 hectares of land have been reconquered for cultivation; during the last ten years this figure has been almost doubled, because also on the shore of the Adriatic, in the province of Ferrara, and in Sardinia, the work of reclaiming has been carried on by perfected means which have already given most satisfactory results. In the Puglia which suffers from want of water, important works have been undertaken to transport across high chains of mountains a great volume of water, destined in part to

the inhabitants of the cities, in part to the needs of agriculture.

To these important works of salvage, which will, after the war, be much more extended and intensified, must be added the transformation of the methods of cultivation. The use of machines has spread into almost all the provinces; thanks to the numerous agrarian schools, to peripatetic teaching, agrarian associations, and to the land banks, the use of chemical manures has increased. The considerable distributing network of electric energy permits in many zones the employment of electric power for agricultural work; where this is not yet possible, recourse is often had to gas or heavy oil motors. Experiments on a large scale have been made recently of motor ploughing even in villages, where the inhabitants seemed most reluctant to accept the novelty, and it is logical to hope that very soon an excellent result will be obtained. The agricultural production which was about 2 milliard of lire in 1860 has grown to-day almost to 8 milliard and very soon will have reached 10 milliard.

Suitable laws have recently provided for

the re-afforestation of the mountains which in a too great avidity for gain had been deprived of their trees, and thus were prevented the frequent floods which are the inevitable consequence of de-afforestation. The actual war, through the scarcity of coal and its substitutes, has necessitated the abundant use of charcoal and wood and therefore the frequent cutting of the forests. Notwithstanding all this, provision has been made and will be made in the future in order to prevent the work of re-afforestation from being interrupted, which had been so wisely initiated and had already begun to bear good fruit.

The principal agricultural products of Italy are the following according to the latest statistic published in 1913:

PRODUCTION.

Wine . . .	Ettolitres	54.000.000
Oil. . . .	"	1.800.000
Beetroot . . .	Tons	27.600.000
Grain	"	58.500.000
Maize	"	27.500.000
Fruit	"	8.500.000
Rice	"	5.500.000
Hay	"	238.000.000
Hemp	"	1.000.000

Much has been done to combat the parasitical maladies of plants, which injure Italy's best products, wine, oil, and silkworms. Special laws have been passed to protect healthy zones, while valuable prizes have been offered to the discoverers of chemical or other means for destroying the parasites.

The war has certainly done grave injury to agriculture, depriving it of labour, interrupting the work of improvement, and destroying the stock, which in 1914 consisted of 6.500.000 head of cattle, 14.000.000 sheep and goats and 2.500.000 pigs; but the provisions made and the tenacious fibre of the Italians will quickly succeed in repairing the injuries of the past and will draw new and better returns from this land which is not ungrateful and recompenses him who knows how to appreciate it.

THE LIBYAN WAR

The Libyan war has a special importance for the military history of the Italian people, because for the first time, since the occupation of Rome, the army and navy measured themselves against a powerful state, Turkey, overtly and clandestinely assisted by some European powers, though nominally friends and allies.

The occupation of Tripoli had become necessary for diplomatic reasons, if Italy was not to see her development stifled in the Mediterranean, and the flag of a powerful nation raised opposite to her Sicilian coast. The provoking behaviour of the Turkish Government, which opposed everything, even the pacific Italian penetration in Cirenaica and Tripoli, hastened the deliberations, and in Sept. 1911 war was declared against Turkey.

The Italian expeditionary force had to fight seriously for about two years against the garrisons of the country, which were constantly re-inforced, clandestinely and openly, with fresh help from the adjoining regions, furnished through contraband with the most up-to-date arms, and assisted by the ill concealed connivance of other European powers with the Turks.

The landing at Tripoli and at Giuliana near Bengasi, the occupying of Derna and Tobruk, the Turkish-Arab ambush at Sciara-Sciat, were the first events, which demonstrated how much technical ability, heroism, and spirit of sacrifice animated the Italian soldier in a struggle in which feline cunning, treachery and the savage ferocity of a foe who respected neither honour nor laws, contrasted with the Italian valour.

The victory gained at Henni on October 26 was not bloodless, and vindicated the infamous treason, and the outrages committed on the wounded and Italian prisoners, and assured the occupation of Tripoli.

From November 1911 to April in the following year the bases of occupation were

systematized, a necessity before proceeding to further conquests on the coast, and penetrating into the interior of the country. Military actions took place during these operations, worthy of the highest eulogy, such as the taking of the fort of Messri, the re-taking of Sciara-Sciat, the taking of Hain Zara, due to the ardour of the bersaglieri and the infantry, the conflict of Bir Tobras (in which, though fortune did not smile on Italian arms, the courage and spirit of the soldiers shone out), and the occupation of Gargaresch. Shortly after Homs was occupied with the near hills of Mergheb, and the Italian forces secured striking triumphs on those heights (February-March 1913).

Meanwhile in the zone of Bengasi, Koefia with its oasis was occupied; a great army led by the famous Enver Bey was routed at Christmas, 1912, and with the battle known as that of the *Two Palms* (*Due Palme*), in which the ability and valour of General Ameglio, together with the amazing steadiness of the Italian infantry were demonstrated, all attempts of the enemy to replant their foot in Cirenaica were dispelled (March 12, 1912).

Also at Derna and at Tobruk, where the rocky nature of the ground rendered operations very difficult, the tenacity and spirit of sacrifice of the Italians triumphed over natural difficulties, as well as over the enemy's forces, and succeeded in conquering step by step and strenuously holding the crests of the dominating heights.

The occupation of the peninsula of McCabez, carried out with the help of the Navy, put an end to the smuggling in of arms from the neighbouring frontier of Tunis, and prepared for the taking of Zuara on August 5, after a series of sanguinary engagements, amongst them that of Zanzur (June 8, 1912) and Sidi Said. During this period an epic episode was enacted near Lebda, which stands out to the everlasting glory of the Italian army. A handful of soldiers, 45 all told, commanded by Lieut. Gozzani, 89th Infantry Regiment, for many hours held up a body of more than a thousand Turks and Arabs, defending the little redoubt entrusted to them; finally their leader and twenty men having fallen, others being wounded, and

the ammunition exhausted, the small remnant refused to surrender, and attempted to retreat, hacking a way with the bayonet through the serried ranks of the enemy.

The occupation of Misurata, the second battle of Zanzur against 15,000 Turks and Arabs splendidly equipped (September 1912), the progressive advance of the Italian columns on the Derna tableland, the consecutive victories over Enver Bey at Kasr el Leben and at Sidi Abdallah, gave the last blow to the Turkish resistance. Meanwhile the island of Rhodes, near the coast of Asia Minor, had been taken, and the Turkish garrison at Psitos had been wiped out with a brilliant engagement. Other islands near the Asiatic coast were also occupied by the Italians; the exploration of the Dardanelles threw terror into the Turkish lines.

Negotiations for peace were then initiated, which resulted in the treaty of Lausanne, by which Turkey renounced all pretensions to Cirenaica and Tripoli.

During the world war, now triumphantly terminated, Turkey again busily incited the

Arab tribes, and forced the Italian Government to limit its occupation to a few important places, from whence, before the stipulation of the armistice with Turkey, the work of reconquest was being successfully carried out.

In spite of the contemptuous scoffings of a section of the Foreign Press in the pay of Turkey and her secret allies, the Libyan war, brought to a close with a great and well merited triumph, marked for Italy the beginning of a new Era, the re-awakening of all her energy, and was a revelation of the solid military qualities of the Italian soldier and sailor, a fact which had never been denied, though unfortunate circumstances and unmerited disasters had contributed to dim this in the eyes of critical onlookers.

The Navy during the Libyan War.

The Navy had no small share in the successful results of the Libyan war, both in the protection and escort of convoys, chasing smugglers and the enemy's ships, destruction of Turkish fortifications, and lastly in sending

sailors to cooperate with the troops on land, and in the work of disembarkation.

Indeed a battalion of sailors, after bombarding the fortifications of Tripoli, occupied that town until the arrival of the transports with the first regiments of the Expeditionary Force; the same thing occurred at Tobruk and at Derna (where tremendous difficulties had to be overcome owing to the violence of the sea and the enemy's offensive), at Bengasi, Homs and Mergheb; everywhere, officers and men gave splendid proofs of courage and valour, and many lives were lost whilst fulfilling their duty.

Meanwhile a squadron destroyed Turkish fortifications in the Red Sea, capturing ships carrying contraband, and through a clever manœuvre, putting out of action the few warships the Turks possessed in that sea, and which might have been a menace to the colony of Eritrea.

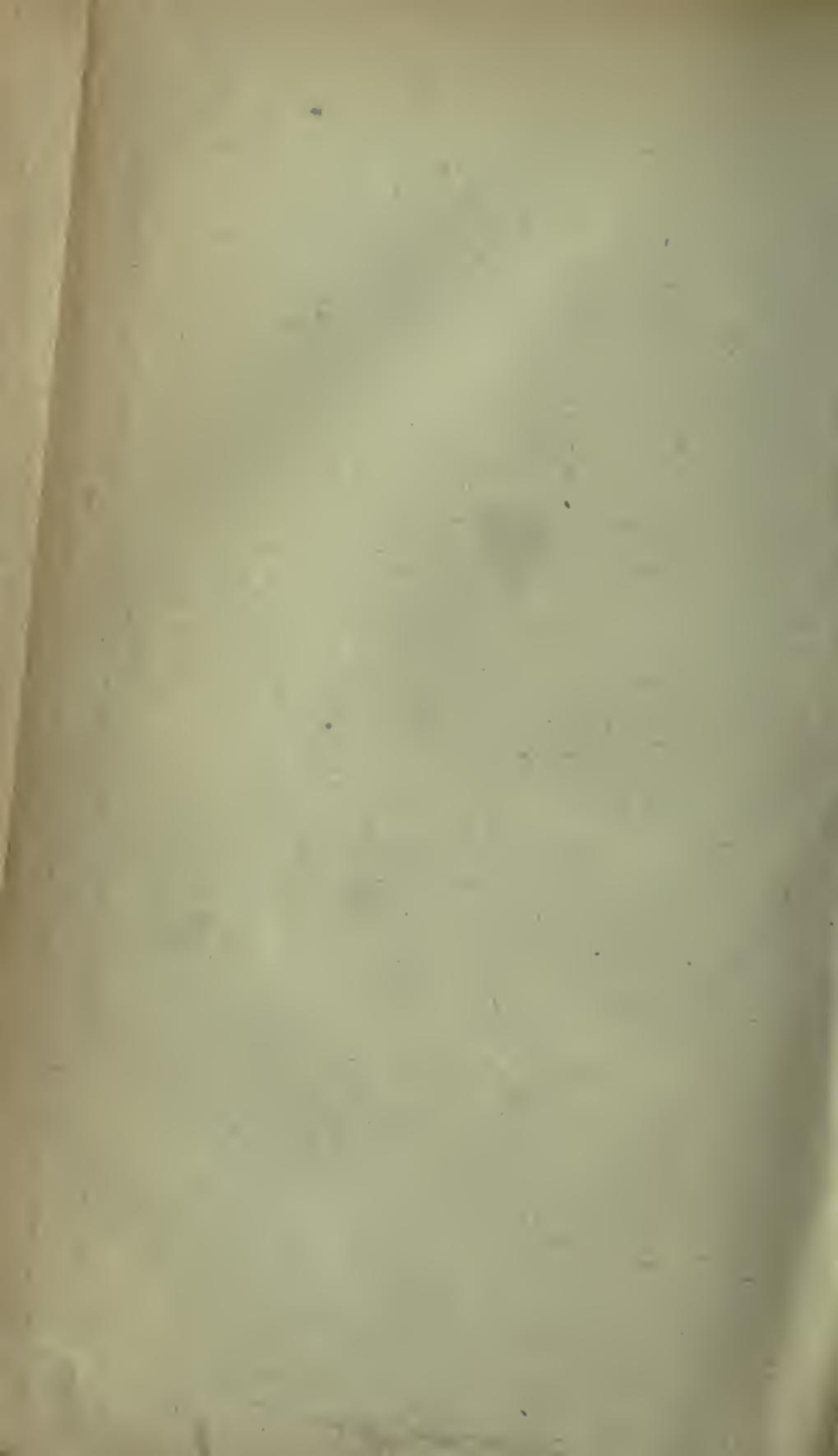
But the ability, audacity and valour of the Italian sailor was above all shown in the Eastern Mediterranean. The destruction of two Turkish warships in the port of Bey-

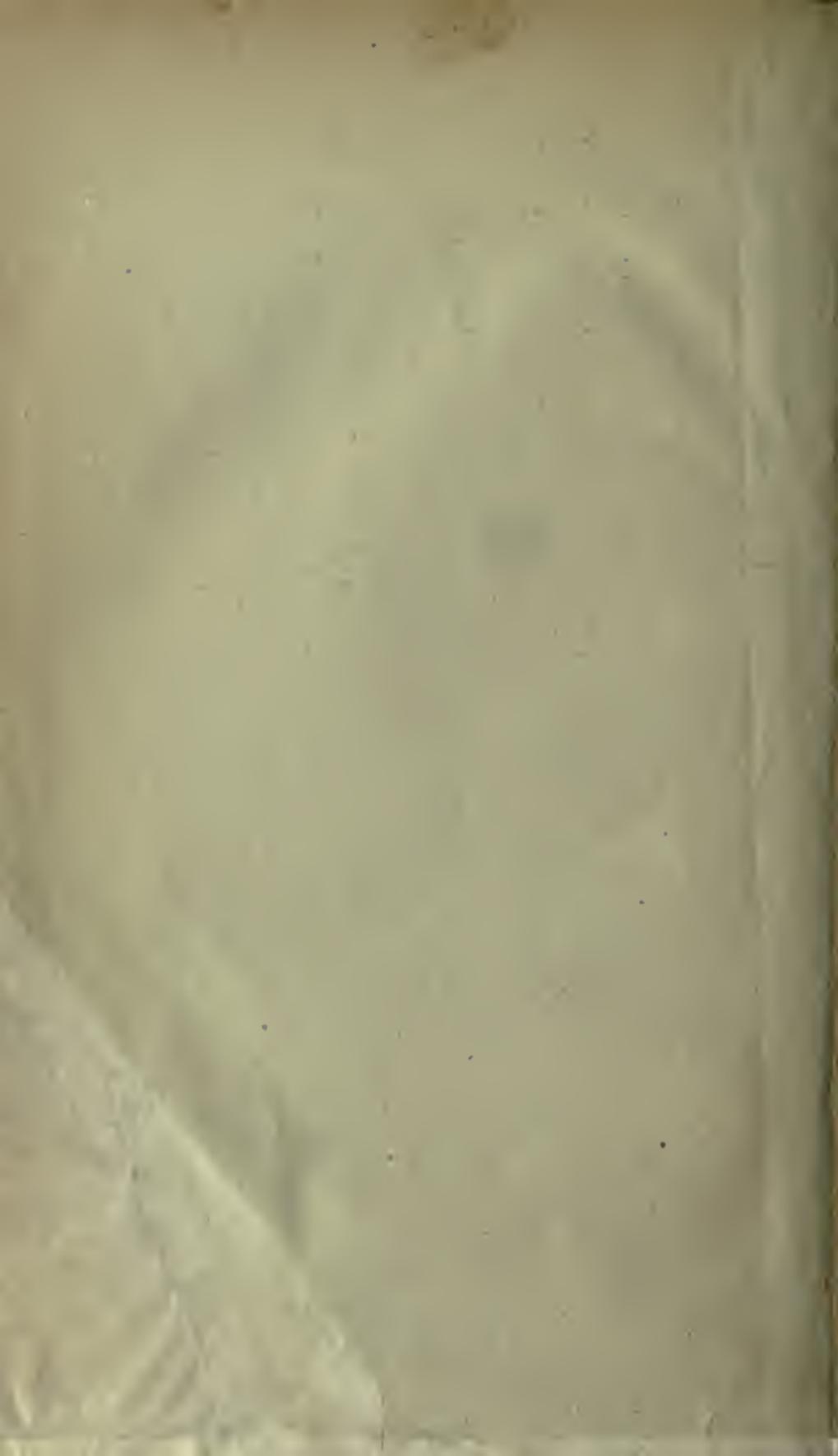
rout; the bombardment of the outer forts of the Dardanelles, inflicting grave damage; the occupation of the Stampalia islands and others in that archipelago; the efficient cooperation rendered at the conquest of Rhodes, are all facts which prove the nautical skill, order and exemplary discipline of those who commanded and carried out these enterprises.

But the most striking undertaking was the exploration carried out in the interior of the formidable Dardanelles by five torpedo boats on July 18, 1913. The valiant leader of these little torpedo boats, Commander Millo, with his courageous companions, ran the gauntlet by night of the fire of the numerous batteries on either shore, and arrived in sight of the Turkish fleet, which was brilliantly reflected in the water by countless searchlights.

A surprise attack was therefore out of the question, and the return was ordered and successfully accomplished, in spite of a hot cross-fire. None of the five little Italian boats suffered much damage, and all rejoined in safety the supporting squadron awaiting them in the offing.

This exploration roused the admiration of the whole civilized world, and Millo's squadron with this extraordinarily audacious enterprise confirmed and augmented the glorious fame of the Navy throughout the campaign.







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